

Contemporary Psychology

A JOURNAL OF REVIEWS

February 1956
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Published by THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

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Contemporary Psychology: A Journal of Reviews is published monthly. The yearly volume comprises approximately 364 pages. The subscription per year is \$8.00 foreign \$8.50, single number \$1.00. Copyright 1956, by the American Psychological Association, Inc.

Published by the American Psychological Association at Mt. Royal and Guilford Avenues, Baltimore 2, Maryland and 1333 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Application for second class entry pending at Baltimore, Maryland.

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"An Important Advance in Our Knowledge" The Story of Freud's Middle Years

Ernest Jones

The Life and Work of Sigmund Freud. Volume 2: Years of Maturity.
New York: Basic Books, 1955. Pp. xiv + 512. \$6.75.

By ROBERT W. WHITE

Harvard University

SOONER THAN one dared hope, we have in our hands the second volume of an astonishing biography of Sigmund Freud. In this volume Ernest Jones tells the story of eighteen years, a short span of time but a momentous one for Freud and psychoanalysis. On the calendar these years of maturity reach from 1901 to 1919. In Freud's life they extend between the ages of forty-five and sixty-three. On the chart of his reputation they accompany a curve that rises from obscurity to world fame. In the history of the psychoanalytical movement they stretch from a meeting of four men in Freud's apartment to the Fifth International Psycho-Analytical Congress at Budapest. On the inner timetable that governed the production of Freud's writings they mark the period from *The Interpretation of Dreams* through the great case histories, the important

papers on metapsychology, the descriptions of therapeutic method, and such wider ventures as *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life* and *Totem and Taboo*, ending finally at an exposition in the most popular of all his books, the one known in this country as *A General Introduction to Psychoanalysis*.

Had Freud gone no farther he would still be an outstanding figure in contemporary thought, but at sixty-three his vitality was far from spent. There is to be a third volume of this biography which will tell of a late but lavish flowering. Still to come in 1919 were the ego, id, and superego, the death instincts, and a solution to the problem of anxiety. Still unwritten were his final views on religion, group psychology, civilization, and the historical Moses with whom he was so deeply identified.

Even at this point our indebtedness to Ernest Jones can hardly be put too



SIGMUND FREUD THEN

strongly. For this is a unique biography written by a man in a unique position: a close associate of Freud's, devoted to him, highly valued by him; closely associated also with the other members of the psychoanalytic group, the whole circle surrounding Freud; yet, as we deduced from the first volume and now find further confirmed, not so bedazzled by Freud's striking personal qualities or so overawed by his genius as to be unable to portray him in human dimensions. Myths both favorable and unfavorable

have grown up about Freud, as they are bound to do about any prominent but controversial figure. Jones sets before us a story so detailed and so penetrating that there can be no further excuse for myth-making.

AT THE beginning of the story Freud was working in complete isolation. He had parted company with Breuer and had virtually given up Fliess, who for more than a decade had served as an encouraging sounding board for his developing ideas about psychopathology. In the last four years he had painfully accomplished his great discoveries, which in retrospect can be seen to mark the turning point of his career. What he had learned while treating neurotic patients and verified through an heroic venture in self-analysis had gone into print in 1900 in the book he always considered his most important piece of work, *The Interpretation of Dreams*. The great discoveries were two in number: the unconscious mind and infantile sexuality. These were not, of course, entirely new ideas; their novelty lay in showing how they could be studied and how powerful was their influence on behavior. Freud's searching description of the "primary process," the manner in which unconscious mentation operates, and of the Oedipus complex, the climactic phenomenon of infantile sexuality, provided the materials for a revolutionary new understanding of human personality both in sickness and in health. It was his major scientific breakthrough, and it put him in a position—to borrow one of his own metaphors—"where, after passing through a narrow defile, one suddenly reaches a height beyond which the ways part and a rich prospect lies outspread in different directions" (1).

During the eighteen years covered by the present volume, Freud's work did indeed spread out in different directions, but he was no longer without an audience. Apparently we owe to his younger colleague and patient, Wilhelm Stekel, the suggestion that brought Freud face to face with his first group of admirers, three in number, meeting around the oblong table in his waiting room. Thus started in the autumn of 1902 the "Psychological Wednesday Society," forerunner of the many psychoanalytical

societies that were soon to appear, and thus began Freud's emergence from isolation. Before long it appeared that his writings, especially *The Interpretation of Dreams*, were evoking interest in more remote quarters. Bleuler and Jung at Zurich began to apply his ideas in 1904; Eitingon and Abraham came to him from Germany through this source in 1907; Jones from England, Brill from the United States, and Ferenczi from Hungary visited him in 1908. In the spring of the latter year Jones suggested and Jung organized the Salzburg Congress, modestly called "Meeting for Freudian Psychology," attended by forty-two people from six lands. Finally, in 1909, came the invitation from G. Stanley Hall to give a series of lectures at the celebration of Clark University's twentieth birthday. Freud tried to take this invitation lightly and chose his topics only at the last moment, but Jones tells us that he was "visibly moved" when he acknowledged his honorary doctorate with the words: "This is the first official recognition of our endeavors." Perhaps he was even more moved by William James's prophecy: "The future of psychology belongs to your work."

FEW PEOPLE have the image of Freud as a man who made a meteoric rise from obscurity to international fame. Freud himself quite naturally emphasized his long years of solitude and rejection, and the "first official recognition" at the age of fifty-three could hardly have been experienced as a quick triumph. Yet the testimony of facts and dates is inescapable: if we recollect that *Studies in Hysteria* (1895) contained only small hints of psychoanalysis and that, except for a few scattered papers and his sparsely attended university lectures in Vienna, there was no way for the world to learn about his great discoveries until *The Interpretation of Dreams* (1900), then it cannot be denied that his ideas caught on at a quite spectacular rate. Of course they were greeted by clamorous outbursts of indignation and horror; few scientific ventures ever raised such a storm of opposition. Yet several of Freud's papers in the first decade of the century were written at the request of editors of periodicals; by 1908, Jones points out, he was "already becoming

well enough known for it to be customary to seek contributions from him." By 1910 his work "was being widely discussed in many countries and a number of doctors were already obtaining experience in the use of his methods." By the close of World War I he had "really become famous." In moments of discouragement Freud would often say that only in the next generation would his ideas find acceptance. He was wrong: the modern Moses, once it was seen what was written on his tablets, advanced swiftly into the promised land of worldwide recognition and dwelt there for many years in honor.

That Freud's ideas won their way so rapidly was in part a consequence of his exceptional gifts as a writer. "He was rated a master of German prose," Jones reminds us; "his receiving the high honor of the Goethe prize for literature at Frankfurt in 1930 shows what connoisseurs of literature thought of his gifts." The readiness of his pen means that we can fully appreciate the growth of his thinking through his writings, which were voluminous during the years in question. Jones undertakes to summarize each production, and in spite of commendable brevity this task occupies more than a third of the book. If these chapters seem less novel and intriguing than the rest of the volume, they nevertheless contain the heart of the story, for the events of Freud's life had now become secondary to the great drama of ideas that was unfolding in his mind. The excursion on which Jones leads us may well prove instructive even to readers who count themselves generally familiar with Freud's work. The commentaries are arranged in such a way as to expose the main lines of evolution and the chief channels of interest, and this makes a living whole out of the eight books, twenty major essays, and nearly fifty short papers which constituted Freud's output for the eighteen years.

Jones characterizes the work of these years as a "detailed working out of the fundamental theories he had already put forward"—the unconscious mind and infantile sexuality. These ideas were constandy and effectively applied to clinical problems, but "Freud was already reaching beyond the clinical sphere and making studies in the fields of religion, aesthetics, pre-history and pure

psychology." Of considerable practical importance was a series of papers on the technique of psychoanalysis. Although he planned more than once to give a systematic exposition, his views actually appeared in this more disjointed form, a further indication, perhaps, of his admitted indifference to the healing art. More weighty were his clinical contributions, of which the six lengthy case histories—Dora, little Hans, the Man with the Rats, Schreber, the Wolf-man, and an unnamed case of female homosexuality—must be considered the outstanding specimens. In some of these cases one catches a glimpse of Freud's consummate genius as an observer: for example, his untangling of the meaning behind an obsessive patient's intricate free associations, and his perception of defenses built in layers around some topic that was laden with anxiety.

FREUD's theoretical writings were also substantial during this period. The libido theory received full exposition in 1905 in the influential *Three Contributions to the Theory of Sex*, considered Freud's most wicked book, and was given surprising revision in 1914 in the essay *On Narcissism*. At a still more abstract level were five papers on metapsychology, composed in a few weeks in 1915 when the war had all but relieved him of patients. They were part of a longer series in which Freud intended to build a systematic foundation for psychoanalysis. *Metapsychology* was a term of his own invention which signified, in Jones's words, "a comprehensive description of any mental process which would include an account of (a) its dynamic attributes, (b) its topographical features, and (c) its economic significance." The completed essays dealt with instincts, repression, the unconscious, dreams, and the topics of mourning and melancholia. Jones judges them to be at the "highest level of thought" Freud had reached since the concluding section of *The Interpretation of Dreams*. The intended synthesis, however, was never achieved. Seven more essays were written but later destroyed. Jones infers that Freud got into difficulties with his conceptualization and postponed the whole attempt.

The wider application of his ideas in-



ERNEST JONES NOW

terested Freud more than their service in medicine. Apparently his mind searched constantly for new fields in which the analysis of unconscious processes and of infantile sexual determinants could display its resolving power. In 1904, he published *The Psychopathology of Everyday Life*, in 1905 the book translated in this country as *Wit and Its Relation to the Unconscious*, in 1907 his analysis of Jensen's story, *Gradiva*, in 1910 *Leonardo da Vinci*, which Jones calls "the first real psychoanalytic biography," and in 1913, after much labor and involvement, his daring and dubious venture into anthropology, *Totem and Taboo*. Later in the same year, at the height of his controversy with Jung and when much worried about the future of psychoanalysis, he wrote *The Moses of Michelangelo*, advancing the belief that the sculptor had intended to portray Moses as controlling his rage at his backsliding people in order to preserve the precious tables for posterity. It is interesting that he insisted on publishing the essay anonymously.

Even this quick enumeration of the work of eighteen years shows that we are dealing with an extraordinary mind. At this period of his life Freud was usually busy all day seeing patients. Besides his writing he did a good deal of editorial work and maintained a steady, lengthy, thoughtful, and vivacious longhand correspondence with all his closer followers. These letters serve Jones well in making vivid the portrait of Freud. But when were they written? When were articles edited and proofs read? When, above all, were Freud's published writings put down on paper? That he worked late at night, slept six hours or less, and took a long summer vacation does not remove the mystery, nor is the solution helped by Jones's revelation that his writing depended on a favorable mood and some-

times moved slowly. One thing, however, is well known: Freud's mind possessed astonishing powers of memory and organization. Almost always he gave his lectures, even his five-hour presentation of the Man with the Rats at the Salzburg meeting, without a note before him, and the result was as perfectly ordered and charmingly expressed as if it had been polished for weeks. Apparently he could often write in the same way; once the ideas had assembled in his head, he could sit down and produce a perfect paper in one draft. Clearly he had the power to function with great intensity and concentration. Even when on pleasure bent during his summer journeys, he was apt to exhaust his companions by his tireless, purposeful visits to works of art or ancient ruins. The same intensity doubtless characterized the reflective processes that preceded the writing of an essay or book.

IT MUST be noted that Freud had a low opinion of his mind, and we can hardly dismiss him as a poor observer of minds. He complained of its incapacity for mathematics and the natural sciences, and he complained also about its shortcomings in dealing with systems and theories. The last point is of particular interest today, when Freud's ideas have won such wide acceptance that it is becoming customary to call them orthodox. This term seems well chosen to make Freud turn in his grave, but it is sadly true that even the boldest ideas may fall victim to the human need to escape from freedom. Freud busied himself a great deal with theory, but it was a realm in which he often felt unhappy; during this period, as we saw, he failed in his major attempt to construct a systematic metapsychology. His own self-estimate was this: "I have made many beginnings and thrown out many suggestions . . . I may express a hope that I have opened up a pathway for an important advance in our knowledge." To me this expresses well, though too modestly, the character and direction of his genius. As a discoverer, and as a man who, in Jones's happy phrase, had "the merit of taking his new ideas seriously" and working out their full consequences, Freud towers alone and perhaps will never be surpassed. But as a theory

builder, where the task is to construct a systematic and consistent arrangement of concepts, he did not always show a shrewd ability to keep out of trouble.

As an example of his trouble one can take the issues created by the mental topography of conscious, preconscious, and unconscious. Freud continued to grapple with this problem long after the present period, but his regional conception of the mind never ceased to plague him with essentially unreal issues. In his essay on *The Unconscious* (1915) we find him struggling with the concepts of censorship and of barriers between regions, even with the question of whether or not a new imprint of an idea must be formed when it moves into a different region. He seemed to reach a happy conclusion in the quite unregional idea that the conscious system involves the addition of verbal concepts to the more concrete ones of the unconscious, but he was never able to abandon the regional metaphor and the same issues were to arise all over again in connection with id, ego, and superego. Still more disconcerting are the complicated assumptions into which he was led by the notion of libidinal cathexis. In the papers on metapsychology we hear of cathexis being withdrawn from preconscious ideas and turned into a counter cathexis which effects and maintains their repression; we hear of it in schizophrenia being withdrawn from objects but remaining attached to the words designating those objects; we hear of it in melancholia as easily detachable from an object but not free to seek fresh attachments or to return to the self. Freud took his ideas seriously but sometimes a little too literally, and he seemed unwilling to abandon certain concepts that trapped him in false issues. Taking his system as an orthodoxy means enshrining these false issues forever.

Jones's story sheds light on this aspect of his thinking. There was much of the artist in Freud, and there was something of the artist's involvement in his own creations. He disliked and avoided arguments. It was not his custom to expose his thoughts early to the haggling of the scientific market place; whatever dialogues contributed to their development took place for the most part in his own head, and the ideas then came forth fully clothed in beautiful prose to receive the

admiration of his followers. Much as a poet would object to others revising his verses, Freud did not want others to revise his thinking, though on certain important points he was willing to revise it himself. His conceptual scheme was thus produced with what may be regarded as insufficient debate. To be as great a theorist as he was a discoverer, Freud would have needed a more argumentative spirit and a more legalistic turn of mind. But could he then have been a great discoverer?

IT WAS in the period covered by this volume that Freud had his worst experiences with followers who became dissenters. The break with Adler occurred in 1911, with Stekel in 1912, with Jung in 1914. I own to a feeling of disappointment at Jones's handling of this difficult topic. He first expounds the well-known theme that insights may be gained but lost again on account of resistances, then tells us in effect that Adler, Stekel, and Jung succumbed to this weakness and became emotionally blind to the central virtues in Freud's work. In thus perpetuating "the rebelliousness of childhood" they contrasted unfavorably with those "who had come to terms with their childhood complexes" and could therefore work amicably with Freud. Jones appears to accept it as a corollary that their ideas had no intrinsic merit, and he treats them simply as obstacles in Freud's life. There may be some truth in his diagnosis of these three dissenters, but if the same reasoning is to be used with Rank, Ferenczi, and all the recent and contemporary neo-Freudians, we shall end with a strangely partisan definition of maturity. To be sure, this book is a biography, not a debate on theories. Freud perceived the dissensions as emotional resistances, and Jones sees them in the same light. It seems to me, however, that good biography should include a fairer portrayal of the people surrounding the central character than Jones achieves at this point.

About the central character, nevertheless, we learn much from Jones's account of these stormy events. We learn that Freud's practical judgment of men was poor and that he was singularly inept at dealing with people in situations that

might involve rivalry and contention. He was oddly indiscreet in the remarks he would make to one follower about another. He stirred great jealousy in his Viennese followers by his obvious preference for Jung and determination to make him the head of the psychoanalytical movement. That there should be strife among his followers seemed to strike him with surprise. Reading about these events, I remembered his charmed position in his childhood home, where his sisters were expected to make sacrifices for his comfort even to the point that one of them gave up piano lessons, and where his mother's favoritism must have protected him from any murmurings of sibling revolt (2). He was tremendously disturbed when disharmony reached serious proportions. Jones describes his attempt to win back the Viennese group after an acrimonious debate at the Nuremberg Congress in 1910.

Hearing that several of them were holding a protest meeting in Stekel's hotel room he went up to join them and made an impassioned appeal for their adherence. He laid stress on the virulent hostility that surrounded them and the need for outside support to counter it. Then, dramatically throwing back his coat, he declared: "My enemies would be willing to see me starve; they would tear my very coat off my back."

Freud's need for a growing band of loyal supporters was overwhelming, and dissension was for him a catastrophic threat.

WHY DID this essentially solitary and independent thinker rely so heavily on supporters, once he had obtained them? It was not that he was an autocrat who could brook no opposition. Jones's account makes it abundantly clear that Freud was no despot; the evidence refutes once and for all such diagnoses as the "megalomania" recently proposed by Natenberg (4). Indeed it is plain that Freud wanted to avoid positions of leadership and personal power. The crux of the matter is again found in his attitude toward his ideas. Their survival and growth in a hostile world had become infinitely precious to him, and their future could be secured only by loyal followers. Freud's fondness for Jung had a strong basis in the pleasure he took in

Jung's vivacious intellect, but his attempts to place the symbols of power in Jung's hands had another motive, expressed as follows in a letter to Abraham: "Our Aryan comrades are quite indispensable to us; otherwise psychoanalysis would fall a victim to anti-semitism." He made strenuous efforts to hold Bleuler's loyalty, felt quite unnecessary doubts about Jones, and was particularly touched and surprised that J. J. Putnam stayed with him to the end. That anyone so proudly Jewish as Freud should evince these symptoms of interest in political expediency must be taken as the strongest possible proof that love for the children of his brain had become his ruling passion.

There is a remarkable contrast between Freud's dependence on his followers and his capacity to withstand the clamorous hostility of the outside world. After completing *Totem and Taboo* he wrote to Abraham: "I am prepared for unfriendly attacks, which naturally will not disturb me." Jones shows us that Freud could be angry about certain features of these attacks, but long struggles with the resistances of patients had taught him that his discoveries were certain to arouse incredulity. There were only two forms of rebuttal that really incensed him: those that were launched from a platform of ethical pretensions and those that assumed he had evolved his ideas from his personal experience rather than from observation of patients. These were the vulnerable points: smothering by moral prejudice, denial of scientific status. From this we can begin to deduce why Freud was so deeply enamored of his ideas. It can never satisfy a student of personality to explain a scientific career by saying that the scientist had a passion for truth, or even that he had an inordinate cathexis for the products of his thought. Why did Freud have such a passion for his particular kind of truth, why was he so forcefully impelled to seek it in this particular direction, why did he care so much for a system in which the novel elements were that man's nature is shot through with sexuality and irrationality?

Jones does not put the question in just this way, but it seems to me that the biography takes us at least a step toward the answer. Freud emerges as an enemy of hypocritical pretensions. It becomes clear that he harbored a deep resentment

toward ethical and religious illusions, toward civilized man's pride in goodness and rationality. In 1917 he wrote a paper, entitled *A Difficulty in the Path of Psycho-Analysis*, in which he described three great blows sustained by human pride at the hands of science: first Copernicus denied man his place at the center of the universe, then Darwin destroyed his unique status among living creatures, finally psychoanalysis challenged his awareness and voluntary control of his own strivings. It was in the nature of scientific discovery to be shocking and to shatter illusions. Freud was happy to be part of this crusade. He would probably have been well-nigh traumatized if the leaders of Viennese society had applauded his work as a contribution to character formation and spiritual growth. It was of no interest to him to learn anything creditable about man. He could discover the unconscious with its constant betrayals of rational control; he could unveil the universality of the urge toward incest, most taboo of all topics; he could later disclose conscience as an infantile and irrational force in personality. Sublimation, however, was a concept he never successfully clarified (3), and his contribution as regards the ego, which he memorably pictured as a helpless rider on a powerful horse, consisted chiefly of delineating its involuntary defense mechanisms. He was contemptuous of Adler for being satisfied with a mere ego psychology, of Jung for believing that incest fantasies were symbolic of higher ideas, of Maeder for perceiving a prospective function in dreams, of Putnam for expounding a philosophy to his patients. Freud's discoveries contained an angry protest against the cruel falsities engendered by civilization. It meant everything to him that the truth should prevail—and the protest.

THE PERSONAL significance of a man's ideas sheds no light on their truth or untruth, but it may have a bearing on one's estimate of the completeness of his system. The field of knowledge now called the psychology of personality owes more to Freud than to any other worker, but discovery depends upon passionate interest and no one man's passion can encompass all aspects of personality.

Jones is a biographer who leaves no

stone unturned, no nettle ungrasped. He closes the present volume with an attempt to explain the secret of Freud's genius ("A bold endeavor; one can but fail"). The explanation starts from the fact of Freud's resistiveness to ideas coming from other people. Puzzled at first by this quality, Jones came to believe "that there was also a concealed vein of the very opposite, and that his resistiveness was a defense against the danger of being too readily influenced by others." Various incidents show that Freud was extremely credulous, none more so than his long acceptance of Fliess's shoddy ideas and his literal belief in the tales told by patients about parental seduction in childhood. But this credulity perhaps constituted "an essential part of his genius," at least when ultimately balanced by critical judgment. "He was willing to believe in the improbable and the unexpected"; how else can new truth be discovered? Freud was capable of sharp self-criticism, but Jones attaches more importance to another quality, "a flair for choosing the essential in a collection of material," or, as we might paraphrase it, a strong sense of what is likely to be important. On the motivational side the desire for truth, naked and certain, was perhaps "the deepest and strongest driving force in his life," and to explain the power of this urge Jones invokes infantile curiosity about childbirth and the unaccountable presence of a rival for the mother's love. Freud's next sibling, the brother who died after a few months, may be presumed to have been the cause of the questioning that thereafter never ceased. Freud's courage and confidence are traced to deep trust in his mother's love, his credulity to the belief that others—his parents and older half brothers—really knew the truth, and his extreme independence to the feeling that he had been deceived by these authorities. The founder of psychoanalysis can thus to a certain extent be understood in the light of his own theories.

That Jones is able to give such a fair, penetrating, and candid picture of the man who was the inspiration of his own professional career is a phenomenon that deserves explanation in its own right. There is no hint here of the feeling expressed by Sachs: "I simply could not believe that Freud was made of the same

clay as others" (5). Jones gives us his impression upon first meeting Freud: "I dimly sensed some slightly feminine aspect in his manner and movements, which was perhaps why I developed something of a helping or even protective attitude towards him rather than the more characteristic filial one of many analysts." Jones served as the warrior and diplomat of psychoanalysis. Freud praised his letters, "full of victories and fights," saying that they made him "feel strong and hopeful." To the psychoanalytical movement he brought a genius for political organization, a very suitable contribution to come from the British Isles. At one of the darkest hours, when the break with Jung was threatening, he proposed the famous Committee which was to charge itself with the destiny of psychoanalysis. Jones evidently perceived that Freud would not be successful in managing the practical side of the movement, and he suggested that an "old guard" of firm friends—Abraham, Ferenczi, Sachs, Rank, and himself—should undertake to do this for him. In 1919 Freud wrote: "The secret of this Committee is that it has taken from me my most burdensome care for the future, so that I can calmly follow my path to the end." More than likely it was because of this protection that Freud was able to continue his path for many years on highlands of original thought and productive writing. Surely we must credit Ernest Jones not only with a valiant career for psychoanalysis, with a superb biography of the founder of psychoanalysis, but also, by relieving Freud of painful burdens and responsibilities, with having helped one of the great creative minds of modern times to compose and deliver its full message.

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Dynamics of Delinquency

Albert K. Cohen

Delinquent Boys: The Culture of the Gang

Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955. Pp. 202. \$3.50.

By BERNARD BARBER

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THE SOCIAL sciences have been bedevilled by two different kinds of inadequate theory. One has been the 'simple and sovereign' one-factor type of theory that reduces complex phenomena and their complex sources to some single category. The other has been the multiple-factor theory that includes so many different elements in an inchoate etiological complex that it ends by not explaining at all. Laymen and students who read books that offer multiple-factor theories of this kind often conclude, quite wisely, that if everything is related to everything else, why bother? The bedevilling influences of these two kinds of theory have been manifest in regard to practically every substantive social, social psychological, and psychological problem. Certainly the analysis of juvenile delinquency has been marked by these inadequacies. Juvenile delinquency has often been explained by any one of several dozen different social or psychological variables taken alone. Perhaps as often it has been explained by the several dozen different factors all thrown together in some vague pattern of correlation with juvenile delinquency.

It is only one of the many virtues of Albert K. Cohen's superlatively good book on juvenile delinquency to avoid both of these faults. He has also avoided another typical difficulty in the explanation of social phenomena, for he has employed neither an exclusively sociogenic nor an exclusively psychogenic theory. He shows the way in which cultural, social structural, and psychological factors are *specifically and precisely* interrelated with one another in juvenile delinquency. "In the majority of cases psychogenic and subcultural factors blend in a single causal process, as pollen and a particular bodily constitution work together to produce hay fever. If this is so, then the task of theory is to determine the ways in which the two kinds of factors mesh or interact" (p. 17). His book is, as few books are, social-

scientific in the broadest sense, including theory and data from sociology, anthropology, social psychology, and personality psychology. If the Harvard Department of Social Relations can produce more books of this kind, it will indeed have achieved one of its primary goals, the integration of these several social sciences around the explanation of important empirical problems and data.

Cohen starts, as any scientist should, by defining the set of essential characteristics of the phenomenon he wishes to explain. He is, he says, dealing only with "subcultural juvenile delinquency," which includes the majority of cases of juvenile delinquency, but not all such cases. The juvenile delinquency subculture has the following six characteristics:

It is *non-utilitarian*. Delinquent boys steal "for the hell of it," that is, not so much for rational gain as for the glory and other satisfactions that occur in the deed itself. They steal clothes they cannot wear and toys they cannot use.

It is *malicious*. Delinquent boys delight in "gratuitous" hostility toward non-gang peers as well as toward respectable adults. Gang wars result. 'Good' children are terrorized. "There is," says Cohen, "an element of active spite and malice, contempt and ridicule, challenge and defiance, exquisitely symbolized in an incident... of defecating on the teacher's desk" (p. 28).

It is *negativistic*. "The delinquent subculture takes its norms from the larger culture but turns them upside down" (p. 28). What is wrong in the larger culture is defined, *ipso facto*, as right in the juvenile delinquent subculture.

It is *versatile*. It takes many forms, such as different kinds of stealing, vandalism, truancy, malicious mischief, and trespass. Any activity that respects a flouting of middle-class norms is adopted by the juvenile delinquency subculture.

It is characterized by *short-run*

hedonism. The gang hangs around, waiting for something to turn up, and acts upon impulse when something excitingly hostile to middle-class norms is presented. The gang is impatient, impetuous, and out for quick fun.

And, finally, it is characterized by *extreme emphasis on group autonomy*. The gang is intolerant of any restraint except from the group's own internal system of social control. The gang is sometimes merely indifferent, but usually hostile to such outsiders as home authorities, school agents, policemen, church workers, and social workers.

NOW THIS phenomenon of subcultural juvenile delinquency, Cohen shows by a careful examination of the available evidence, is concentrated in the male, working-class group of the juvenile population. It is not entirely confined to this group, but that is where the very great majority of juvenile delinquent gangs are found. Why should this be so? If we assume that subcultural juvenile delinquency is a solution to some problem of adjustment common to many people, as group behavior tends to be, then what is the socially structured problem for which it is the peculiarly suitable solution?

In Chapter 3, Cohen offers *A General Theory of Subcultures* which he subsequently applies to subcultural juvenile delinquency. Anyone interested in the explanation of any form of group behavior will find this general theory valuable. Cohen shows how the group may work out a solution that is satisfactory for its several members though not necessarily what any one of them anticipated. Group solutions, in short, are often emergent phenomena, emergent from the processes of individual *interaction*, not just the result of some single type of individual action or goal. The group also offers the support of a new and strong "moral" community. Cohen suggests how the theory of group subcultures helps to explain, in part, the formation of such diverse social groups as social movements, religious cults and sects, political movements, Messianic movements among natives as well as juvenile delinquent gangs.

So much for the group autonomy aspect of subcultural juvenile delin-

quency. What about its other aspects, the maliciousness, negativism, and versatility? These, says Cohen, are appropriate responses for lower-class boys whose social situation tends to create for them a *socially structured inadequacy* to compete effectively in the achievement of middle-class norms. The "middle-class measuring rod" is applied to all children in American society, but some reject it. Cohen gives an excellent account of what these middle-class norms are. They include norms stating the virtuousness of ambition, of individual responsibility, of skills that are necessary for achieving high occupational status, of the ability to postpone gratifications in the interest of long-run achievement, of industry, thrift, rational forethought, and budgeting of time, of the cultivation of the manners, courtesy, and personability that are helpful in achieving success in work and in secondary social relations, of the control of physical aggression and violence, of constructive and wholesome recreation that helps to build useful skills, and, of respect for property rights, the rights that are structurally and symbolically so important in a middle-class industrial society. Although these norms are present as norms throughout most of the lower as well as the middle class, lower-class parents do not exemplify them so well to their children and do not have the talents and resources to teach them very well to their children. "The middle-class home is more likely to train the child to compete successfully for status in terms of these norms than is the working-class home" (p. 94). Some middle-class homes fail, some lower-class homes succeed, but on the whole the lower-class boys are more likely to suffer handicaps in the competition for valued positions in American society.

And, note, to the extent that the lower-class boy has internalized middle-class values or cares what middle-class people think of him, he is likely to have feelings of shame, inferiority, resentment, and hostility. (Cohen suggests that we need psychological research on just this point.) Lower-class boys feel all the worse, moreover, when they see that some of their lower-class peers strive successfully, despite their lower-class handicaps. The school, of course, is the place where the structured inadequacy of lower-

class boys is most strikingly demonstrated. The school curriculum is constructed to form middle-class personalities and performance. The teacher is middle class in personality and values. And, indeed, within the school itself as a going social system, the middle-class norms of courtesy, rational forethought, and control of violence are aids to achievement. The lower-class boy is, therefore, more likely to fail and to be rejected by his teachers and his classmates, both the middle-class ones and the lower-class ones alike who are successful. Outside the school also, middle-class values and personalities predominate in recreational facilities and settlement houses. In sum, the lower-class boy is at a socially structured disadvantage in achieving the middle-class values forced upon him by his society; and his disadvantage puts him "in the market" for a solution.

This is what subcultural juvenile delinquency is—one suitable solution for the structured inadequacy of lower-class boys. It is not the only solution. There are alternatives. A lower-class boy may, as we have seen, strive successfully in school to learn the middle-class norms. Or, he may excuse his failure in some way and content himself with a law-abiding lower-class status. Or, he may, as in juvenile delinquency, respond with anger and aggression. Then he may reject the middle-class norms altogether, as the juvenile delinquency subculture does. His rejection is supported by the group and by the new 'moral' community which he shares with them and in which the very antithesis of middle-class norms has been adopted. The delinquent can claim he is 'better than anyone else' at least with regard to his own norms, and this is a claim that is important for all Americans. Psychologically there is probably something of reaction formation in the juvenile delinquency subculture, Cohen suggests. Its irrational, malicious, unaccountable hostility to middle-class norms may represent an overreaction that reassures the lower-class boy against the anxiety he feels in violating the middle-class norms that are to some extent still important to him. Thus, "the same system, impinging upon children differently equipped to meet it, is instrumental in generating both delinquency and respectability" (p. 137).

In sum, the juvenile delinquent subculture is an appropriate solution for the socially created adjustment problem of lower-class boys. It is not an appropriate solution either for girls or for middle-class boys. Cohen's comparative analysis of female and middle-class male delinquency, somewhat speculative because of the lack of research, shows why each would require its own appropriate solution and why both of these would be different from the juvenile delinquent subculture of lower-class boys.

Psychologists who have followed Cohen's argument this far will now be asking whether he is saying that all participants in the juvenile delinquent subculture have the same motivation. Are they all filled with anger against the frustrating middle-class norms? In the absence of psychological research on this matter, Cohen can only suggest good reasons why it is very probable that *different* motivations are present in the participants. Although most delinquents probably are angry at the source of their frustration, some members of the gangs may participate because their friends do, or because they are fearful of being beaten up, or because the gang is the only group at all open to them in a racially or ethnically divided neighborhood, or because they find participation symbolically appropriate to some deeplying psychological need. In general, though there is a common core of motivation, a typical status discontent behind these delinquent groups, membership in them may "yield all sorts of benefits and satisfactions sufficient to motivate people to want to belong" (p. 148). The behavior principle involved is that there is no one-to-one relationship between motivation and subcultural behavior.

So one learns from Cohen's book not only a great deal about juvenile delinquency but also about such other important matters as male and female role differences, American value systems, the class structure, the school and other socialization mechanisms, and the family.

Need I make explicit my conviction that every social scientist will profit from studying this book? The profit will be easy to take because the book is lucid, modest, and very well written.

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The Mosaic for Psychotherapy

James L. McCary and Daniel E. Sheer (Eds.)

Six Approaches to Psychotherapy

New York: Dryden Press, 1955. Pp. vi + 402. \$3.75.

By EDWARD JOSEPH SHOEN, JR.

Teachers College, Columbia University

THE PROMISE of this book is the presentation of the "general background to, and an introductory description of, the therapeutic techniques used by the qualified clinician at work." Such a promise dovetails excitingly with two major interests in psychology. For the clinical worker, it offers a chance to drink at the fountain of much of his wisdom, the considered experience and functioning procedures of his colleagues. For the theorist and researcher, it suggests an opportunity to examine possible behavioral changes growing out of interpersonal relations, one of the most important and most baffling topics commanding his attention.

One's expectation on opening *Six Approaches*, then, is that one will find a good deal of case material, hopefully of the verbatim kind, illustrating the ways by which a half-dozen outstanding psychotherapists achieve beneficial changes in their patients. Since remarkably few clinicians aside from Rogers and his group have thus exposed their work, this prospect is extremely attractive. It is all the more so because the contributors are men of considerable reputation. Nicholas Hobbs presents the client-centered approach. Lewis Wolberg discusses hypnotherapy. S. R. Slavson has a chapter on group psychotherapies. Norman Reider is the spokesman for therapy based on psychoanalytic principles and Frederick Thorne for directive and eclectic personality counseling, while J. L. Moreno represents psychodrama. And there is a concluding summary chapter by Daniel Sheer.

It is at this point, however, that a confusion arises. What *kinds* of approaches are presented? Psychodrama is essentially a form of group psychotherapy, and Hobbs devotes about one-sixth of his chapter to group therapy from the

client-centered point of view. Slavson, on the other hand, in what is presumably a major discussion of group therapy, makes it very clear that his procedures are based on psychoanalytic principles, thus overlapping with Reider. Reider's chapter, in turn, provides a kind of text to which Wolberg's is a long footnote concerned with the therapeutic adjuvant of hypnosis, and, if Thorne's concept of the therapist as a "master educator" differentiates him from the others, it is only by the relatively authoritarian connotations the term carries in his context.

These observations prompt two queries, one related specifically to McCary and Sheer's book and the other of a more general nature. First, are there really six *approaches* presented here, or are there only six therapeutic *positions* which can be described in terms of the two coordinates of directive-vs.-non-directive in the domain of therapist behavior and individual-vs.-group in the domain of clients served? Or are the approaches represented distinctive only in the sense that they reflect the clinical methods and accumulated technical insights of six men who have worked long and hard at their common profession? The latter is probably the more accurate interpretation, but it seems odd to find the issue unmentioned in the text, and it lends force to the second question: What are the dimensions in terms of which the therapeutic process can most meaningfully be described? Within what kind of framework, for example, can the differences among Moreno, Slavson, and Hobbs in their execution of group therapy best be identified and most profitably studied by the clinician, eager to improve his store of helpful techniques, or the research psychologist, eager to enlarge his understanding of how behavior is modified as a function of interpersonal relations?

In the absence of such a framework, a crude but potentially fruitful beginning can be made simply by studying transcripts of therapeutic interactions, searching for relevant dimensions, and attempting to evaluate how well the therapist has achieved stated objectives. Since it is hard to see how a technique can be usefully described without its being rather fully exemplified, it is both startling and disappointing to find that Hobbs includes no case material, focusing instead on general principles and objectives, that Thorne quotes only one brief passage from an actual interview, concentrating instead on general statements as to how the directive therapist proceeds, and that both Slavson and Moreno illustrate their work only with case excerpts tacked onto the ends of essentially theoretical chapters. Wolberg, on the other hand, gives a great many illustrations from treatment hours but discusses them so briefly that it is difficult to develop a sense of his objectives and rationale. Only Reider combines rich case materials with a presentation of the bases for his procedures sufficiently extended to enable one to understand his approach with any clarity, and his illustrations are not of the verbatim sort. The result is that the book's purpose of *showing* qualified clinicians at their jobs is essentially unfulfilled. For the most part, *Six Approaches* represents qualified clinicians *talking about* their jobs, often instructively and insightfully but rarely revealingly. What might have been a usable mine of information for practitioner and theorist-researcher alike is basically only another collection of papers about psychotherapy.

Papers about psychotherapy, however, can have considerable value, and some of these collected here are certainly challenging and informative, particularly for people actively concerned with therapeutic practice at whatever stage of training. Because these chapters are essentially self-contained and independent contributions, each must be given some attention in its own right.

HOBBS's presentation of client-centered therapy is a workmanlike survey of the philosophical orientation, theoretical bases, applications, and research associated with this particular school. While there is nothing here that has not been

said elsewhere by competent Rogerians, the statement is a concise and literate one that should prove particularly useful as a serious introduction to this view of the therapeutic process. The complete absence of case materials makes it difficult for a student to grasp in concrete terms the operational meanings of non-directive counseling, but this disadvantage is offset by the fact that client-centered therapists have for years published verbatim protocols elsewhere. Occasionally, Hobbs fails to discriminate between "illustration" and "evidence" (see particularly his pp. 51-58 on personality theory), but it was not his purpose to present a critical point of view toward his own approach.

Wolberg's discussion of hypnotherapy is almost the direct opposite of Hobbs's chapter in that it is virtually entirely composed of case excerpts with a minimum of comment. The result is that a reader is richly supplied with provocative and stimulating records but can too easily read the paper as a psychotherapeutic panacea. Concentrating on therapeutic successes and lacking any statement of when hypnotherapy is indicated or contraindicated, of what the limits of its functioning may be, and of the conditions under which what kinds of therapists might use it, this contribution sounds at times like a sure-fire route to therapeutic glory. Similarly, it is regrettable that the author pays no attention to the considerable body of research now collected on hypnosis and suggestibility. Nevertheless, for one who wants to find a description of the use of hypnosis in a therapeutic context, Wolberg's paper is perhaps the best brief source available.

Slavson's contribution is a sprightly presentation of the fundamental concepts (relationship, catharsis, insight, ego strengthening, reality testing, and sublimation) in terms of which he feels that all psychotherapy is to be understood and their application to therapeutic groups. He argues that different types of patients require different kinds of clinical help, and while his description of different sorts of group procedures may not convince all readers of their special applicability, it cannot be ignored by any serious clinician who has accepted professional obligations to groups of clients. Again, the illustrative case excerpts are too

skimpy to permit a concrete grasp of Slavson's principles, but the chapter serves as an excellent introduction to his more extended works on group therapy.

Norman Reider surprisingly reveals himself as that rare thing, a sophisticated psychoanalyst who knows his way around in logic and the rules of evidence and who distinguishes clearly between clinically useful speculations and assertions supported by public observation. Rejecting the medical model of treatment as the application of a specific therapeutic agent in the light of a definitive diagnosis, Reider discusses ways in which psychoanalytic principles can be employed in the pursuit of therapeutic goals ranging from the arbitrary working through of derivative needs that underlie superficial human troubles or the shoring up of pathogenic defenses to the wholesale restructuring of the personality. While his illustrative case material is not verbatim, it is fully presented and relevant; while he properly calls his presentation "unsystematic," he argues his case with more cogency and a better eye for empirical evidence than is generally true of psychoanalytically oriented writers.

Thorne's contribution is characterized by a fascination for diagnostic information that is at variance with every other paper in *Six Approaches*, and many will feel that he is discussing something that could more communicatively be called *management* than *psychotherapy*. Taking as a basic premise the notion that "someone must discover what is the matter and what must be done, and then must see that it is done" (p. 245), Thorne is unable to escape an authoritarian tone that could not be challenged in itself if it were buttressed either by experimental evidence or convincing case material. Since it is neither, one is inclined to predict that few therapists will find much to stimulate their thinking or to modify their techniques in these pages.

Moreno, on the other hand, has in psychodrama a most intriguing clinical approach which combines verbal procedures with the acting out of impulses and problem situations in a controlled theatrical setting. The conceivable intensification of interpersonal relations and the overt enactment of various roles all make psychodrama worthy of serious investigation as an opportunity for new

learning. Moreno discusses the process, however, in a flamboyant language of conceptual fantasy that is difficult to comprehend. For example, "The social atom of an individual is thought of as consisting of crisscross affinities between him and a number of individuals and things on numerous levels of preference" (p. 317) is presumably a definition of an important concept. Perhaps it is enough to note that it hardly meets the tests of operationism!

Finally, Sheer's summary had the opportunity to assess these divergent papers in terms of their similarities and differences and to search for either a common theoretical basis or a set of theoretical issues that could be clearly joined. Such a chapter could have had enormous value both in giving the book some unity and in formulating actual hypotheses that might undergird a research program in psychotherapy. That chapter, however, never was composed. Instead, the volume closes with a loose review of a number of theoretical papers, some fifty studies of therapeutic outcomes, and eleven references roughly related to therapy as a learning process. Sound in its endorsement of empirical research as the next and necessary road to a greater understanding of the therapeutic enterprise, it says little that contributes to the launching of such research.

Six Approaches to Psychotherapy amounts to excellent shop talk by some eminent clinicians. Disappointment at its being no more than that should not detract from the profitable eavesdropping that good shop talk regularly permits.



[Wilhelm Stekel's] success in the field of symbolism made him feel that he had surpassed Freud. He was fond of expressing this estimate of himself half-modestly by saying that a dwarf on the shoulders of a giant could see farther than the giant himself. When Freud heard this he grimly commented: "That may be true, but a louse on the head of an astronomer does not."

—ERNEST JONES



Curing Unreason by Reason

Harry Stack Sullivan

(Edited by Helen Swick Perry and Mary Ladd Gawel)

The Psychiatric Interview

New York, W. W. Norton and Company, 1954. Pp. 246. \$4.50.

By NICHOLAS HOBBS

Peabody College

IN CROSSING the Atlantic psychoanalysis underwent a not surprising modification in which there emerged an emphasis upon cultural rather than biological influences as major forces in the shaping of personality. Harry Stack Sullivan was one of the most important contributors to this process of Americanization, and his most notable contribution, aside from his personal influence on many analysts, was his emphasis on the interview itself as a social situation. The interview is not one-directional; it is an interactional process, a process of interpersonal relationships, of participant observation. For Sullivan, the least common denominator of all important human experience is two people. In this book, built posthumously from recordings of his lectures and from his notebooks, one can get a description of what he thought the interpersonal relationship should be like when manifested in the psychiatric interview.

According to Sullivan, the psychiatric interview has four phases—the inception, the reconnaissance, the detailed inquiry, and the termination. Neat. This book is mostly about the detailed inquiry and the reconnaissance, supplemented by seven pages of hasty attention to the payoff in which the interviewee is to obtain from the "expert" something of value in the living of his life. (*Expert* is Sullivan's frequently used word which reminds one of George Kelly's contrary notion that every man is his own expert.)

The something of value which the patient is to obtain from the psychiatric interview draws attention to the great psychoanalytic paradox, one which has long puzzled me. Psychoanalysis is frequently credited, as for instance by Howard Mumford Jones and by Karl Jaspers, as the dragon that slew reason in the world. Jaspers calls Freud the antichrist of reason, and Jones stirringly

calls for a junking of Freudian silliness and a return to confidence in the uses of man's mind.

Freud undoubtedly helped the world see what it had been blinded to, that man's behavior is often controlled by powerful forces of which he has little awareness. The explicit formulation of unconscious motivation has had powerful influence on contemporary psychiatry as well as on contemporary art, music, drama, and literature, not to mention child-rearing practices and advertising. In the diagnosis of man's ills, and of the origins of a particular man's neurosis, psychoanalysis underscores the importance of experience, not reasoned about and, even more importantly, not expressed. Psychoanalysis has, moreover, helped the world see the forces of unreason operating in all of us. But it is in the psychoanalytic prescription for this state of affairs that the great paradox occurs: the cure from unreason is reason; the antidote for hurtful experience is rationality. Freud was indeed a product of his time, and only a partial rebel to it. He discovered the non-rational origins of many of our difficulties, but his cure was worthy of the most dedicated rationalist. Psychoanalysis has let us know that no man ever reasoned his way into a neurosis, yet it seems to insist that he should reason his way out.

This paradox shows up clearly in Sullivan. Most of the book is about man's unreason, about his incredibly complex system for defending himself against evidence damaging to himself, and about the psychiatrist's skill in getting the evidence without frightening away his patient. The major section describing the tactics of inquiry is brilliant. It reflects Sullivan's many years of experience and communicates the kind of skills that one would learn in an appren-

ticeship under a great teacher. From the patient's reasonable arguments and confused ramblings, from inversions and protestations, from what is said and unsaid, remembered and unremembered, the psychiatrist discovers the truth, the significant patterns in the individual's behavior. Since "the interviewee's self-system is at all times, but in varying degrees, in opposition to achieving the purpose of the interview," the interviewer must learn to circumvent this self-system. He must follow threads of thought through intricate twistings designed unconsciously by the patient to protect himself from his would-be helper. Such is the psychiatrist's expert role.

Having untangled the irrational skein of thought and discovered what natural coils it should fall into, what does the psychiatrist do? I will quote here, with assurance to the reader that no damage is done, other than by brevity, by lifting from context, because I fear that a paraphrase would hardly be believed:

The consolidating of the interview's purpose is done, grossly, by following four steps: (1) the interviewer makes a *final statement* to the interviewee summarizing what he has learned during the course of the interview; (2) the interviewer gives the interviewee a *prescription of action* in which the interviewee is now to engage; (3) the interviewer makes a *final assessment* of the probable effects on the life course of the interviewee which may reasonably be expected from the statement and prescription; and (4) there is the *formal leave-taking* between the interviewer and the interviewee (pp. 209f.; the italics are in the original).

For its twentieth-century discovery of the irrationality of man, psychoanalysis (and Sullivan most clearly in the present instance) has an eighteenth-century prescription: man should be reasonable.

WHAT I miss in Sullivan is a conception of the interview situation itself as an immediate learning experience in more constructive living. Sullivan recommends that the quality of the interviewer-interviewee relationship be observed in order that the interviewer may discover characteristic patterns in his client's behavior. His observations are then passed on as information with the apparent expectation that the client will go forth and live more constructively.

The perduring role of anxiety outside the interview situation is not considered; presumably the information the client gains about himself will be sufficient proof against it. Sullivan's closing words restate the theme of rationality: "And finally, the interviewer as an expert makes sure that the interviewee 'knows himself' the better for the experience."

All of this is unexpected in a writer who is so aware of the role of anxiety in the interview situation itself. I thoroughly agree with the statement, "Anyone who proceeds without consideration for the disjunctive power of anxiety in human relationships will never learn interviewing." This statement is surely true of all life and not of the interview situation alone. But I doubt very much if what the expert learns about his client and then passes on to him will be much protection against the disjunctive power of anxiety. Sullivan's "prescription of action" seems a frail reed indeed. Self understanding does not diminish anxiety. Self knowledge becomes an effective instrument of living when anxiety has been diminished by new learning experiences in significant interpersonal relationships.

The question arises as to whether the book does justice to Sullivan, and I rather think it does not. The title, the introduction, and even some of Sullivan's own statements lead one to expect a more comprehensive treatment of interviewing, with implications for psychotherapy as well as for psychodiagnosis. The book is really about the psychiatric interview as an instrument of appraisal: "the interview is a system of *interpersonal processes*, arising from participant observation in which the interviewer drives certain conclusions about the interviewee." The participant observer is here pictured as a shrewd diagnostician. The reader is left with the puzzle as to whether Sullivan's concept of the psychiatric interview is really so limited or whether expectations have been set up which were not intended by Sullivan in his original lectures.

What the editors have put together is, nevertheless, pure Sullivan: no research is cited, there is no bibliography, and only four other writers receive reference, the most casual reference. But Sullivan straight is good. His lectures have assurance, charm, and a fine mastery of language.

Of particular interest to psychologists in this Freud centenary year. . .

PSYCHOANALYSIS AS SEEN BY ANALYZED PSYCHOLOGISTS

This well-known symposium, originally published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* in 1940 and 1941, has now been reprinted. The symposium, totaling some 160 pages, includes the following articles:

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CP SPEAKS . . .

WHO PUBLISHES psychology's books? CP wondered. With whom is CP going to have to do business? The first answer to this question was staggering. In the United States there are 579 important publishers of books, a list that, large though it be, nevertheless excludes 26 American publishers important enough to have published psychological books included in the three lists discussed below. In Canada, Great Britain, and Europe there are still more publishers who put words—English words—between hard and soft covers for psychologists to read. How many publishers are there of psychological books important enough to be reviewed in America or to be often cited?

CP began with four volumes of the *Psychological Bulletin*, the ones for 1951–54. In these volumes there were 271 reviews of books put out by 77 publishers. The list was headed by McGraw-Hill with 28 books reviewed, followed by Harper and Ronald with 18 books each, Wiley with 15, and then on down with Macmillan, Grune and Stratton, Houghton Mifflin, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Princeton, Chicago, Holt, Norton, Rinehart, Yale, Dryden, Harcourt Brace, Harvard, Prentice-Hall, and Van Nostrand. The last five of these publishers had five books each reviewed. There were 16 publishers with only two books, 38 with only one.

Since CP receives for review more books in psychotherapy and in social psychology than in any other fields, it was possible that the *Psychological Bulletin* was biased, so we analyzed the reviews in four volumes of the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* for the same years (1951–54). Not much change. There were 93 reviews of books by 46 publishers, ranging from 7 volumes from Harper, 6 from Ronald, 4 from McGraw-Hill, 4 from the Presses Universitaires de France, down to a single volume from each of 20 publishers.

Still dissatisfied, we tabulated the publishers of the 629 books listed in 1955 in *The Harvard List of Books in Psychology*, ranging in date from 1885

(Helmholtz's *Sensations of Tone*) to 1955. This gave us 39 books by each of three publishers: Harper, Macmillan, McGraw-Hill. After them: Wiley, 32; Appleton-Century-Crofts, 30; Harcourt Brace, 26; Chicago, 21; Holt, Houghton Mifflin, Yale, 20 each; Ronald, 17; Norton, 14; Princeton, 13; Columbia, Harvard, International Universities, Longmans, Green, Oxford, 11 each; Williams and Wilkins, 10, and then on down to 24 publishers with two books each in the list, and 66 publishers with but one book.

Altogether the three lists cite the offerings of 139 publishers, of whom 25 are named ten times or more. (The same book may be cited twice or even thrice, since the three lists are independent.) The names of these 25 publishers are all printed above. Now to calculate and publish a threshold is invidious, for it fixes an artificial critical point, separating peers by the caprices of statistics. Nevertheless, since this kind of distortion of reality does indeed aid economy of thought and action, we may properly regard these twenty-five publishers, each with ten or more citations in the samples, as appropriately the ones who are doing the most for psychology at the present time. There is no fair way of putting the twenty-five into a combined rank order, nor any use for such a rating if it could be had.

CP merely says to these publishers—the twenty-five and the other one hundred fourteen: More power to you! Don't forget to help CP to keep psychologists interested in the books of their profession.

DARWIN'S 83-year-old *Expression of the Emotions in Men and Animals* has been reprinted in hard covers by The Philosophical Library with a brand new 1955 copyright (\$6). It still makes fascinating reading, for good observation does not get out of date in science nearly so rapidly as does strongly supported theory, and the essential modernity of this volume is stressed by Margaret Mead's remark (in the Preface) that all

the title needs is to have the word *Expression* changed to *Communication*, and by Frank Beach's remark (in vivo) that the title could be up-dated simply by changing the word *Emotions* to *Motivation*. While the author will doubtless ignore both these suggestions, his successors, the modern ethologists, are amassing new data on how men and animals signify and thus communicate their intents and attitudes.

The paperbacks can be good nowadays. Calvin Hall has had the 50,000 words of his hard-cover *A Primer of Freudian Psychology* (1954, World Publishing Co.) reprinted as a 122-page Mentor Book at 35¢. It is a wonderfully clear, scholarly exposition of Freud's final basic psychology of personality, interesting though without frills, just the sort of stimulant the competent psychologists ought to be furnishing the drug-store reading public. The psychologists know a lot and the public ought to be fed more of it, with mass production permitting a low price for top quality. Hall makes available in soft covers 1000 words about Freud for a cent, whereas Darwin's ghost between boards gives you only 200 words for the same money.

The Wisconsin symposium on interdisciplinary research—neurology, psychology, and biochemistry—is going to have in it some first-rate stuff, says Frank Beach. Look for it in print the end of next summer. Harlow's editing it.

THIS month CP features Freud and to a lesser degree Ernest Jones. The second volume of Jones's *Freud*, for the years during which the psychoanalytic movement took definite shape, appeared in September, an event not without importance. CP wondered whether to save R. W. White's sagacious review for the May number, for Freud was born on 6 May 1856 and this is indeed the centennial year. Expediency won out over sentiment, however, and besides CP knows that Freud's greatness in psychology's history is not yet recognized by all the modern descendants of the brass-instrument psychologists. Who (in R. L. Thorndike's phrase) do *you* think was greater: Freud or Helmholtz? All right. That's the sort of psychologist you are.

—E. G. B.

Which Johnny Can't Read?

Rudolf Flesch

Why Johnny Can't Read—And What You Can Do About It

New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955. Pp. 222. \$3.00.

By WILLARD C. OLSON

University of Michigan

THIS IS NOT the type of book that commonly is reviewed in scientific journals. It was issued in a trade edition, was widely syndicated in many leading newspapers, and has the professed purpose of assisting parents to teach their children to read. After one hundred and thirty-four pages of exhortation there follow some general instructions to parents, some phonic exercises and seventy-two pages of lessons.

The phonic method that Flesch proposed requires children to be taught first to recognize the names of letters, the short sounds of the vowels, and the consonant sounds. The long sounds of the vowels and the other consonants follow later in the plan. The recognition and sounding of large numbers of phonograms are a part of the system. These elements then are built into words and the child is to be required to read and write each one.

By and large, American reading instruction has used all useful approaches. The broad contrast is that the phonics method proposed by Flesch consists in having children master first the smallest components of the language and then having them proceed toward larger units. Contemporary methods in the United States emphasize the thought, the whole word, the sentence, and subsequently may employ sounds and such word analysis as may be needed. With this meaningful method the theory is that the children also will obtain mastery over new words. Children frequently start their reading experience by acquiring 'sight' words. This is a process that often happens in the home before a child comes to school as words are associated with pictures and objects. The teacher commonly uses sight words as a basis for experience stories. The characteristics of a modern program are well described in a recent Yearbook (5).

Flesch makes his own simplified definitions and describes the controversy as the phonic method *vs.* the word method. Perhaps the readers of this journal should be allowed to judge for themselves the general tone and temper of the book. The following quotations give a sample of the scholarly and scientific attitudes of the writer:

Do you know that there are no remedial reading cases in Austrian schools? Do you know that there are no remedial reading cases in Germany, in France, in Italy, in Norway, in Spain—practically anywhere in the world except in the United States? Do you know that there was no such thing as remedial reading in this country either until about thirty years ago? Do you know that the teaching of reading never was a problem anywhere in the world until the United States switched to the present method around about 1925? (p. 2).

Naturally he has emotional problems. Teach him phonics, and most of them will disappear like snow in the sun. (p. 116).

I wish the educators were frank about this thing and admitted that the word method is a simple application of the conditioned reflex. It goes straight back to Pavlov and his famous salivating dogs. (p. 125.)

I say, therefore, that the word method is gradually destroying democracy in this country; it returns to the upper middle class privileges that public education was supposed to distribute evenly among the people. (p. 132.)

What I am talking about here are not matters for argument but facts—facts that are public knowledge. The American people know what they know. (p. 132.)

Mind you, I am not accusing the reading 'experts' of wickedness or malice. I am not one of those people who call them un-American or left-wingers or Communist fellow travelers. (p. 133.)

Such claims and accusations have led most reviewers to go to the published literature to prove that there are remedial cases in Europe, that reading is as well

done now as it was then, that there is no exclusive use of the word method, that children now do have the ability to attack new words, that the current products of the schools read both extensively and well, and that experiments do not prove the superiority of the phonic approach.

Published replies are now so numerous that the present reviewer believes it to be unnecessary to analyze all of the claims that are made in the book. The references at the end of this review are a sample of some that have been brought to his attention. Anyone with the interest and patience might well look to them for detailed answers.

THE PSYCHOLOGISTS who read this review will believe that researches in intelligence testing and in the measurement of achievement have established firmly the fact that individual differences exist among children, that these are not easily or quickly altered, and that they have something to do with school success. Since this point has not been stressed, the present reviewer will neglect other aspects and dwell on individual differences at greater length. These variations among children are of an order of magnitude far greater than the amounts of change that can be achieved by using one method *vs.* another. The explanation of a particular Johnny's slow progress in reading thus is more likely to be found in the characteristics of his growth pattern than in the method which is employed. However, Flesch has anticipated this answer also by the flat statement that: "'Reading readiness' means the readiness of the teacher to let the child start reading" (p. 70).

It has been established that good readers have good command of phonic skills. The coefficient of correlation between the ability to read and the score on a test of phonics will be about .55 to .70 (7). How and why the skills are acquired, however, is quite another matter because such coefficients are found in the very same classrooms taught by the very same methods and by the very same teachers. It is a seductive trap, however, to argue that the association is 'caused' by phonic instruction.

Psychologists have found repeatedly

coefficients of correlation of approximately .50 between results of an intelligence test and achievement in reading. Children who are low in intelligence regularly read later in life and less well than those who are growing more rapidly. Indeed, some few children of the institutional level will not learn to read at all, irrespective of instruction. Children with very high IQ's regularly achieve some competence in reading without much experience in schools since they pick it up by themselves. The ability to read also runs in families and a division into high-reading families and low-reading families on the basis of the first child in a series will make a greater difference than can be teased out of any subtleties of method.

To underline the importance of individual differences as a factor in whether or not Johnny learns to read early in his life or later, the reviewer took 75 boys at age seven and divided them into two groups—high mental age and low mental age. The mean reading age of the upper group was 94 months and of the lower 80 months—a difference of 14 months! To make the case doubly secure for those who argue that reading ability affects IQ, the writer took the 44 boys for whom mental ages were available at 60 months, before organized reading opportunity, and found that two years later the upper and lower mean reading ages were 97 months and 80 months with a difference of 17 months. Differences such as these cannot, of course, be found by variations in method.

To illustrate the problem of general maturity the reviewer next divided the 75 boys at age seven into heavy weights and light weights on the basis of weight measurements. The heavy weights had a mean reading age of 89 months and the light weights 85 months. The difference of 4 months equals or exceeds most reported comparisons of method and can be replicated with greater regularity.

THE ABOVE figures illustrate the fallacy in individual cases and in 'eye witness' accounts as used by Flesch. Reading varies with sex, intelligence, parental occupation, family characteristics, and many other factors. Without careful controls of some of the known loadings in samples of the population,

casual observations and standardized measurements can give no true answer.

It is to be hoped that the barrage by Flesch will precipitate some additional direct studies of method with improved designs. The questions of the long-time durability of changes and of the comparability of samples plague the interpretations at present.

A small but well-designed experiment has recently come to the reviewer's attention. Naeslund (4) at the Institute of Education at the University of Stockholm has contrasted the phonetic method and the sentence method by using a co-twin control experiment. One member of each pair received the phonetic instruction. The children were tested for oral reading as recorded on a tape, by the reading of word lists, and by time and errors in paragraph reading. Exposure time for word recognition was tested. Tests of comprehension were given. A method of paired comparisons was used to determine the enjoyment of reading. Projective tests were used to secure preferences among school subjects, and there were tests of associated learnings and of spelling. Equivalence of results seems to be the outstanding feature of the many detailed analyses, with a slight edge toward the satisfaction of the children for the sentence method. Naeslund promises a 'follow-up' test for durability.

It is unlikely that Flesch personally will encourage further research. His final exhortation is: "Let's forget about the past. Let's not argue about doctrines and theories, about who is to blame for what has happened. Let's start all over again and do better by those 33 million" (p. 134).

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Whence Onomatopoeia?

Heinz Wissemann

Untersuchungen zur Onomatopoeie. 1. Teil: Die sprachpsychologischen Versuche

(Bibliothek der allgemeinen Sprachwissenschaft, Zweite Reihe: Einzeluntersuchungen und Darstellungen.) Heidelberg: Carl Winter Universitätsverlag, 1954. Pp. 241.

By JOHN B. CARROLL
Harvard University

IN ENGLISH, we say that a firecracker goes "Bang!" and a cannon goes "Boom!" Other languages use different words for these things, but there are often similarities among the words for the same noise in different languages. Such similarities are a minor plague to etymologists and historical linguists: Is English "Bang!" related to French "Paf!" or are they independent onomatopoeic creations? Wissemann, who is evidently more of a linguist than a psychologist, nevertheless appeals to psychological experimentation to give some clues to such problems. His reasoning is this: Suppose we present some noises to people and ask them to make up words to imitate these noises—will not the responses, when analyzed phonetically and otherwise, show enough consistency to enable us to draw some conclusions about what kinds of words are probably onomatopoeic in origin?

This is precisely what Wissemann did, except that, not being a devotee of

Fisherian experimental methods, he developed his design a bit haphazardly. It is pleasant to report that the final outcome, as an experimental design, is reasonably defensible, but one should not expect to find here the technical precision, statistical treatment, and gadgetry which are customary in certain American laboratories. For example, one of the problems that presented itself was how to produce the noises that people would be asked to name. The requirements were (a) uniform presentation for all subjects, (b) psychological realism, and (c) fidelity to the original sound source. An American psychologist would probably have used binaural tape recordings presented by earphones. Wisemann had more faith in his ability to make uniform presentations with psychological realism by the actual physical manipulation of original sound sources such as hammers hitting iron weights, vacuum flasks breaking into smithereens by being dropped on the floor, and water shaking in beer bottles. In all, fourteen such noises were used, and they were the same in all three experiments. (Thus, 31 vacuum flasks were expended in the course of the experiment, one for each subject!) This reviewer is not happy about the fact that the noises could by no means be said to be of a novel character; without doubt practically all were quite familiar to the subjects, and many already have onomatopoeic names in languages like German and English.

The three experiments varied only in the task required of the subject. Instead of directly asking subjects to name noises, Wisemann conducted a pilot experiment with five educated adults, an experiment in which each subject was presented with six arbitrary nonsense words (paralogs of one, two, or three syllables) and asked to choose which of them best matched the sound heard, and further to suggest an "improved" paralog. In the second experiment ($N = 12$), S was to choose the best matching paralog from a list and then to suggest one entirely of his own creation, saying it aloud for phonetic transcription by E ; in the third experiment ($N = 14$) no choices were presented and S was simply asked to make up a word to imitate or represent the sound.

MOST of the essential raw data of the experiment are presented and analyzed

in detail, with citation of examples illustrating points made rather than statistical summarization even of the crudest variety. (The whole report would have had to have been condensed to ten pages or so if it had appeared in an American psychological journal.) Some of the results may be described parsimoniously by stating that, if an individual is asked to select or to create a word in imitation of a noise, the noise and the word will usually approximate each other with respect to such things as number of parts (number of syllables), frequency characteristics of the sounds (voiceless sibilants vs. voiced stops, for example), and time of peak amplitude (syllable stress). Other results are somewhat less obvious: clanging, ringing sounds are rather consistently represented by nasal sounds; an abrupt stop is usually represented by a voiceless final consonant, while a gradual stopping gives a fricative. Wisemann's results concerning vowel quality as expressive of the sound color and pitch of the sound stimuli seem to accord with those of Edward Sapir (1929) and Stanley S. Newman (1933).

Unfortunately, it is extremely unlikely that the results are relevant to problems of onomatopoeia in historical linguistics. Wisemann's experiment is reminiscent, in a way, of the famous attempt of the Egyptian Pharaoh to discover the origin of language—the one who is reported by Herodotus to have placed two infants out of hearing of human speech until they started uttering sounds which the Pharaoh took to be original language. At least the Pharaoh controlled the prior training of his subjects! An analysis of the utterances of adult subjects who are already highly conditioned linguistically, placed in a highly artificial experimental situation and given a strange task, could hardly lead to any definitive statements about how to spot whether or not a word is onomatopoeic in origin. It will be interesting, however, to see how the author treats this problem in the planned second volume of this work.

Nevertheless, the experiments were worth doing, but not for purposes of historical linguistics. The behavior of individuals making speech sounds to imitate strange noises is an interesting subject of study in its own right, with implications for experimental phonetics,

phonetic symbolism, and other areas bordering on psycholinguistics. There is even a psychoacoustic problem here: What is it in noises as physical stimuli that finds representation in speech sounds? In what ways is the individual's noise-imitating behavior influenced by the phonemic structure of his language or by his experiences with noises? Without fully intending to do so, Wisemann has made a valuable first attack on some of these problems.



Anthology for Motivation

David C. McClelland (Ed.)

Studies in Motivation

New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955. Pp. xi, 552. \$6.00.

By ELLIOTT MCGINNIES

University of Maryland

TRADITIONALLY one of the more restive areas within psychology, motivation has largely been neglected as a topic deserving independent consideration since Thompson (*The Springs of Action*, 1927), Troland (*The Fundamentals of Human Motivation*, 1928), and Young (*Motivation of Behavior*, 1936) published their works. Although several interim volumes appeared dealing with the application of motivational theory to more specialized areas, like advertising, motivation languished for a space until 1953 when McClelland *et al.* drew attention to *The Achievement Motive*, and Brown *et al.* assembled the Nebraska symposium on *Current Theory and Research in Motivation*. Even more recently Maslow (*Motivation and Personality*, 1954) has attempted a unified approach to this venerable topic, but from a distinctly clinical point of view. Apparently feeling that a systematic treatment of motivation would be premature, McClelland has chosen to present a compilation of chapters and papers drawn from published journals and books. Obviously, the merits of a symposium of this sort rest largely upon the judgments and proclivities of the editor.

That McClelland has conscientiously culled the relevant literature for his material is attested to by the length and variegation of the table of contents. His

criteria for inclusion have apparently not been bounded by theoretical bias, and the reader will certainly find large portions of the offerings palatable to him regardless of his requirements for a course textbook. Contributions to the volume come from biologists, anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists. The fifty separate selections are organized into four main sections which deal with (1) psychodynamics, (2) biological origins of motives, (3) social origins of motives and values, and (4) the effects of motivation on behavior.

ANY symposium volume, in the reviewer's opinion, falls heir to certain inevitable virtues as well as vices. In areas of psychology where the exact subject matter is evasive and where theory is primitive, attempts at systematic organization for textbook use frequently become little more than expositions of the author's own parochial point of view or, worse yet, rambling stabs at eclecticism which fail completely to capture the students' interests. Social and clinical psychology, for example, have been the recipients of several such ill-fated, though courageous, attempts. Appeal to the individual competence of several authors, on the other hand, can frequently circumvent these pitfalls. A collection does not assume the mantle of systematization; neither does it reflect a single author's strengths and weaknesses. It has the virtue of being able to call upon expert knowledge in various areas of research, but it frequently lacks the vital thread of continuity that makes the difference for many instructors between a suitable and an unsuitable text.

McClelland's book has its share of these vices and virtues. The initial section on "psychodynamics" features three selections from the works of Freud. The TAT also comes in for rather frequent reference, and the entire section is apt to convey an impression that anecdotalism and qualitative description are still rife in

motivational research. Articles by Tinbergen, Harlow, and Olds, however, largely dispel this suspicion and provide the framework for an extensive section dealing with biological factors and some theoretical considerations. Social determinants of motives and values are considered in the third major division of the book, which features contributors from several unrelated disciplines. It is here that the reviewer felt the greatest need for an organization and a critical relating of the highly diverse selections. Why these topics are peculiarly relevant to motivation, rather than to a discussion of attitudes or personality traits in general, is not clear. It seems as though the editor were striving to emphasize the breadth of social factors from which motives may derive and, in so doing, has stretched the fabric of his concept of motivation too thin.

Perhaps the clearest delineation of motivation as an independent concept within psychology comes in the concluding section of the book, which is concerned with experimental demonstrations of the role of motivation in behavior. The selections are not apt to displease anyone, although obviously many equally significant articles have been omitted through limitation of space. Significantly only two of the fourteen offerings deal with animal research, a fact which may dismay those comparative psychologists who have been diligently pursuing truth in this area.

The principal difficulty in assessing a book of this nature is that its scope and treatment are neither definitive nor exhaustive. There is no reason, for example, why another volume bearing the same title (with the subscript "2") should not appear at any time, containing an entirely different array of contributors. It might even include such names as Allport, Klineberg, Tolman, Beach, Skinner, all of whom have published material relevant to the subject at hand. But perhaps this is not a fair criticism. McClelland states

in his preface that he is attempting to break out of the traditional framework with respect to motivation and that his selections represent only a sampling. The instructor who uses his book will have the same opportunity for selective assignment of chapters, although he will have to assume the responsibility for integration and evaluation of the diverse approaches and findings that are presented.

Invariance of Factors

Yrjö Ahmavaara

Transformation Analysis of Factorial Data

(Annales Academiae Scientiarum Fennicae Ser. B, Tom. 88, 2)
Helsinki: Academia Scientiarum Fennica, 1955. Pp. 150. 750:-mk.

By JOSEPH R. ROYCE

University of Redlands

ONE OF THE most important methodological issues in factor analysis today has to do with the problem of factorial invariance. What happens to a factor, we ask, when tests are added to a test battery or subtracted from it, or when older or younger subjects are used as the experimental population? Is the Space factor reported in the study by Professor A the same Space factor as reported by Professor B? Professors Thomson, Thurstone, Guilford, and others have worried about these problems under the general rubric of the effects of selection. And, while an imposing list of experimental studies appears to confirm the invariance of certain factors in spite of variations in population and composition of the test battery, an exact mathematical procedure for conducting such studies has not been available. The major portion of this monograph is concerned with providing a methodological answer to this problem.

In Part I of the monograph Dr. Ahmavaara develops the mathematics and the theory for the "transformation method." This method hinges on the transformation matrix, $L = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$, where X is the matrix containing

The lonely mind of one man is the only creative organ in the world and any force which interferes with its free function is the Enemy.

—JOHN STEINBECK

the factor loadings of the comparison tests from one test battery, and Y is the matrix containing the factor loadings of the same comparison tests from the other test battery. Comparison tests are simply all the tests which are included in both test batteries. After the proper multiplying before and after as indicated by the transformation formula, the matrix L must be normalized. The diagonal elements of this matrix, aptly named "invariance coefficients," indicate the cosines of the angles between the factors (i.e., their vectors) of different studies. In other words, the higher these values, the more closely each factor of one study is associated with a factor of another study.

In the application of the "transformation method" to Thurstone's Primary Mental Abilities in Part II of the monograph, Dr. Ahmavaara's invariance coefficients indicate that factors V , W , and S are invariant, but that factors N , R , and P are not. At this point we come up against a weakness in an otherwise flawless procedure. Now that we have the invariance coefficients, how shall we interpret them? How large do the values of the normalized transformation matrix have to be in order to indicate invariance? For example, in Table 16 Dr. Ahmavaara lists seven invariance coefficients for seven factors as follows $N = .744$, $W = .979$, $S = .968$, $V = .967$, $M = .929$, $R = .848$, $P = .689$. From these data, he concludes that "the result shown in Table 16 is clear enough: among the actual intellectual factors the factors W , S , and V turn out to be highly invariant with their invariance coefficients well over .960, whereas the invariance coefficient of all the other intellectual factors are conspicuously low." A value of .848 does not seem to be much below the value of .967. Furthermore, he seems to beg the issue regarding the intermediate case of factor M with an invariance coefficient of .929. Lacking a standard-error formula or other criteria as a basis for drawing the line as to whether a given coefficient reveals "invariance," it must be admitted that the "relative" basis used by Ahmavaara is the only procedure open to him at present. It would appear to be premature, however, to make firm decisions regarding invariance on such a statistically inadequate basis.

Several other less important methodological and theoretical concepts are taken up in the third and final portion of the monograph. The most important of these is the "method of residual spectra."

This monograph contributes unification to the factorial literature, and the reviewer find it exciting. There seems little doubt that in the future, in addition to 'factoring' and 'rotating,' factor analysts will be computing 'transformations,' thereby linking factors in the study at hand with other factor studies pertaining to the same domain.



Treating Schizophrenia

Lewis B. Hill

Psychotherapeutic Intervention in Schizophrenia

Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. vii + 215. \$5.00.

By JOHN ARSENIAN

Boston State Hospital

THE AUTHOR addresses this book to physicians and says that the therapeutic situation is his target. Of nine chapters, four, comprising about forty per cent of the pages, deal with psychotherapy. They are by title "On Becoming a Psycho-Therapist," "Acute Schizophrenia: The Experience and the Treatment," and two companion pieces, "Psychotherapy—The Patient's Contribution," and "Psychotherapy—The Therapist's Contribution." These chapters, especially the last two, deserve careful study by persons interested in treating schizophrenia by a meeting of minds. They are a harvest of thirty-five years of psychoanalytic practice and thirty years of teaching. The gleanings may appear meager to some who do not know this field, but those who do will fully appreciate the scattered notes on when, how, and what to sense and do, because such understandings and maneuvers make a large difference in results.

A chapter on "What Is Schizophrenia?" is perplexing because it succeeds in unsettling the boundaries usually established to distinguish between diagnostic classes. Thus "schizophrenia, the

experience and the way of operating," is seen as occurring in many persons including neurotic and normal, not to mention the psychosomatic and drug addict.

There follow three chapters which deal with developmental patterns: "On Being a Person Prone to Schizophrenic Episodes," "On Infancy—The Period of Becoming a Person" and "On the Infancy of the Potential Schizophrenic." If, as Dr. Hill suggests, "schizophrenic children pass into, if not through, the same stages and experiences in infancy," one of these chapters may be superfluous. Still it is interesting to see what a distinguished psychoanalyst pulls out of the storehouse of concepts in general psychology to build his model of personality from infancy to the tripartite state. Naturally Dr. Hill builds with psychoanalytic concepts, but he does borrow some "foundation stones" from gestalt psychology and Pavlov. Mostly however, these are familiar propositions about the organism, survival and adaptation, which belong neither to gestalt psychology nor Pavlov. To the good are some detailed formulations on the development of the ego in identification and separation from the mother, ideas which are not so familiar as Dr. Hill implies. But he, a humble man, ascribes them to an unheralded discoverer, a Dr. Fairbairn, rather than to assert and develop them as his own ideas.

The remaining chapter, "The Mothers of Schizophrenics" adds the author's mature reflections to the current indictment of mothers for schizophrenia. The effect is but to temper the animus in such name-calling as "schizophrenogenic," for Dr. Hill eventually finds these mothers "not sufficiently good" and "devastatingly, possessively all-loving of their child who is to be a schizophrenic."

It is remarkable that neither the chapters on mothers nor those on psychotherapy mention Dr. J. N. Rosen who flatly calls these mothers "perverse" and makes a practice of supplanting them. Dr. Hill feels it a mistake to alienate the mother and, indeed, that it cannot be done. Apparently he feels that to intervene in "treatable schizophrenia" is very different from the "direct analysis" of chronic schizophrenia.

It would indeed be interesting if the author had undertaken "a compre-

hensive, lucid discussion of the whole subject of treatable schizophrenia" (jacket blurb) but he has not. Instead we have a series of stimulating essays from a humane modest man with a wide experience and some wisdom to pass on.



Personal Relations in Industry

Edwin E. Ghiselli and
Clarence W. Brown

**Personnel and Industrial
Psychology.** Second Edition. Pp. viii
+ 492. \$5.00

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955.

By LEONARD W. FERGUSON
Hartford, Connecticut

AT FIRST glance, one derives the impression that there are few, if any, differences between this new second edition and the earlier one, published in 1948. And even a second and a third glance do little to dispel this view. By the fourth glance, however, one discovers the addition of short sections on the group interview, on situational tests, on forced-choice ratings and on the technique of the critical incident as an aid in determining job specifications, that material in three chapters on testing has been rearranged, that two chapters on training have coalesced into one, and that a chapter on monotony—but not the material—has disappeared. Also that the introductory chapter, "The Scientific Study of Human Factors in Industrial Problems," has undergone modification and most important of all, a new chapter, "Social Factors in Industry," has appeared. We are left, as we were with the earlier edition, with a very readable, encouragingly critical, and valuable text, covering most of the hodge-podge areas of general interest in personnel and industrial psychology.

In the new chapter, "Social Factors in Industry," Ghiselli and Brown cover such subtopics as "groups and organizations" and their relation to individual behavior; "group and organizational structure" and factors determinative thereof; "description and measurement

of the structure of work groups" and the interrelations involved therein; "individual roles within a group," their nature and concomitant behavior variables; and "leadership." With respect to this last, most vital topic, the authors discourse upon the difficulties of definition, but lean towards that advocated by Shartle, Stogdill and others, that "leadership . . . [is] the process by means of which the activities of the members of an organization are influenced with respect to goal setting and goal achievement." They give their estimate of conditions making for effective leadership, cite various functions that a leader, as a leader, must attempt to fulfill, and review much of the research on authoritarian versus democratic leadership. In this connection, they express legitimate curiosity concerning the extent to which the results favoring democratic leadership are due to the fact that the studies have been performed primarily in democratic rather than in authoritarian cultures. Ghiselli and Brown also discuss, with good and critical insight, many of the problems involved in identifying leaders and leadership, in determining the generality or specificity of leadership, and in ascertaining the personal traits, if any, which characterize leaders.

The teacher using the book as a text will find, as Ghiselli and Brown intended, an emphasis on principles and a consequent slighting of practice. Thus the teacher may have to concentrate on describing techniques, so that the student may better see the problems to which the various principles may be applied. Assuredly, this emphasis makes the teacher's job an easier one, yet we may legitimately wonder whether this is pushing the instructor in the 'right' direction. Shouldn't he be made, even more than now, to concentrate on principles? Still it is doubtful that Ghiselli and Brown should have written differently. Certainly they are to be commended for their successful effort to keep away from the all-too-frequently used cookbook-and-recipe type of approach.



Opinion and Attitude

H. H. Remmers

Introduction to Opinion and Attitude Measurement

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.
Pp. 437. \$5.00.

By ROBERT P. ABELSON
Yale University

UNDERGRADUATE curricula in psychology tend to lag behind developments in the field, often waiting upon the appearance of a new textbook to signify that some particular content is ripe for teaching. Thus one looks to Remmers' book to mark the integration and maturity of the emergent discipline of attitude measurement. Unfortunately the book falls short of this expectation in style, clarity, organization, and precision. Both beginning and advanced students are apt to be dissatisfied with it.

For instance, the beginner is frequently tripped up by the questions at the ends of chapters, questions that demand considerable sophistication in psychology. In addition, concepts are very often introduced before they are explained, if they ever are. Examples are: *normal distribution*, *stratified sampling*, *zero-order correlation*, and *multivariate distribution*. Furthermore, some confusing topics (viz., Guttman scaling with polychotomous items) are dwelt upon without adequate illustrative examples, and many discursive passages make garbled reading.

The advanced student may also feel perplexed by the book, for many passages are conceptually and theoretically banal or meaningless or both (e.g., "Hero worship is an extreme . . . form of attitude [toward the hero] acting as a motive," and "the functional psychoses have their origin in the attitude patterns of the individual") and occasional clinkers are to be found in the statistical treatment (like the confusion between tests of significance and confidence limits and the definition of *all* cumulative frequency distributions as "ogives").

This reviewer is less displeased by the content coverage of the book. In it seven chapters are devoted to techniques of attitude measurement; they cover opinion sampling, elementary statistics,

item construction, the Thurstone, Likert, and Guttman scales, personality inventories, and indirect measures of attitude. Five chapters deal with applications: to business, government, industry, community interrelations, and education. There is no chapter on applications to theoretical research.

If the reader makes allowance for the omission of advanced or specialized topics, such as the method of successive intervals, content analysis, experimental design, latent structure analysis, and factor analysis (the book does not profess, after all, to be more than introductory), and if he recognizes that only seven references dated later than 1951 appear in the bibliography, then he finds the range of topics and the fund of examples and references actually quite rich. The coverage is perhaps even too inclusive, for attitude is defined very broadly by the author.

Remmers' emphasis upon applications of attitude measurement is designed to convince the student that much can be done with objective methods in applied social psychology. His book is apt for this purpose. This reviewer, however, would not recommend the book as an aid in teaching the details of the content matter.

Hearing

S. S. Stevens, J. G. C. Loring, and Dorothy Cohen (Eds.)

Bibliography on Hearing

Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1955. Pp. 599. \$7.00.

By W. D. NEFF

University of Chicago

THE *Bibliography on Hearing* is an enlarged and up-to-date revision of the *Bibliography in Audition* published by the Psycho-Acoustic Laboratory in 1950. This new bibliography contains over 10,000 entries, listed in alphabetical order by name of first author. It covers English and foreign publications up to 1953. Foreign titles are listed in English as well as in the original language.

In addition to the main section of the book, the alphabetized bibliography, a second section gives a classification of publications in hearing according to subject matter. The main headings of

the classification section give some idea of the scope of the bibliography. They are: anatomical, biophysics, biochemistry and pharmacology, psychophysics, animal studies, speech and information, music, noise, effects of sound on man, deafness, audiometry, and auditory theory. Numbers are assigned to each main heading and to subheadings, a total of 315. Under each of the 315 headings a list of references by author is given.

A final brief section of the book gives a list of abbreviations used in the bibliography.

There is little, if anything, to criticize about this new bibliography. Its compilers and editors have done their work carefully and thoroughly. If there are errors and omissions, scholars in the field of hearing can repay a small part of the debt that they owe for this excellent book by sending corrections to the editor.

In the section on classification by subject, any specialist in a particular field of hearing can undoubtedly find some titles wrongly classified. This is to be expected. The chief purpose of the classification section, according to the preface, is to "help the reader to get started on a fruitful trail in searching out the literature on a given topic."

How to Counsel

Ralph F. Berdie (Ed.)

Counseling and the College Program

Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1954. (Number 6, Minnesota Studies in Student Personnel Work.) Pp. 58. \$1.50.

By CHARLES F. WARNATH

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS pamphlet is a compilation of eight papers from the Third Annual Conference of Administrators of College and University Counseling Programs. The title has given the editor wide latitude in the selection of materials, much broader than the individual papers require, for half of the presentations are not the general discussions that one might expect from the title and table of contents. The articles are "what has happened at" and "how we do it at" presentations. Thus a reader

who expects to find reviews of problems that different types and sizes of counseling services might encounter in different types and sizes of colleges could be disappointed to discover material on research done by some counselors at Michigan State, precollege counseling clinics at Michigan State, the relations of counseling to student personnel work in residence halls at Missouri, and the developing interactions of counseling and placement services at Washington.

This collection should help administrators to think through and, perhaps, to solve some of the problems facing their counseling centers. Individual college counselors should not, however, expect the pamphlet to be of general use to them (as they might be led to believe by a glance at the title), unless they are directly concerned with or interested in the problems of administering a college counseling program.

Onlies

Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Moseley

The Only Child: A Guide for Parents and Only Children of All Ages

New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1954. Pp. vii + 245. \$3.50.

By MAUD A. MERRILL

Stanford University

IN *The Only Child* this well-known team of authors has undertaken to deal definitively with problems that are among the particular hazards of Onliness. If, in so doing, they have included in their guide material that is not less applicable to children in general, it is because, as the authors have amply demonstrated, Onlies as a group do not constitute an unusual class of people. Clearly relevant to the particular problems of the only child are the discussions of the dangers of parental overprotection, indulgence, and domination, and of doubtful value for their purpose topics of such generality as the *Safeguard of Happy Parents* or such specificity as *When Your Child Should Stay Alone*.

The authors' conclusions are amply supported by a sound backlog of research reported informally for the non-technical reader and incorporated without precise documentation in their easy

narrative account that discredits the spoiled-only-child stereotype. If the psychologically oriented reader is irked by their rules of thumb and check lists of do's-and-don'ts for parents, he will still feel that the book offers informative, easy reading and sound advice to parents of Only and other children.

Concave Noses Are Sensory

Jacques Penry

The Face of Man: A Study of the Relationships Between Physical Appearance and Personality

London: Rider and Company; New York: John de Graff, 1955. Pp. 209. \$3.75.

By STANLEY M. GARN
Fels Research Institute

THIS book is a pleasant little physiognomy written by a business man, and containing (besides many attractive drawings) a table outlining the cause of each mental disorder (p. 186) and a "plea for wider tolerance, for a better realization of what constitutes human personality" (p. xiii). According to Penry, relationships between physical appearance and personality are rooted in endocrine function, and thus such features as bobby noses or droopy eyelids indicate specific character traits. Supporting evidence, of course, is slim, consisting mostly of Hoskin's popular *Tides of Life*; but the relationships, despite the hormonal approach, follow the nineteenth-century physiognomic line. Thin lips still mean firmness of character, convex noses are "motor" and concave noses are "sensory." Clinical psychologists may be happy to learn that anxiety is caused by "hypothyroidism or hypoadrenalism, chronic gastritis," that the cause of depression is "same as above." And on the role of environment *The Face of Man* has this to say: "An intermediate-level adrenal type with clear cut, angular features is quite likely under conditions of strain, poor diet or unhappy environment, to become haggard, sallow in complexion and dull of eye" (p. 187). One can hardly take exception to this!

FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

In this issue CP continues the description of recent films which it began in the preceding number with *Child Psychology*. The following reviews continue with *Child Psychology* and cover films about *Emotional Behavior*, *Group Living*, *Psychology for Living*, *Shop Safety*, and *Projective Techniques*. In the March issue the reviews will cover *Perception*, as well as some *Recordings* that are useful in teaching and general education.

Child Psychology

Bird Hunt

Richard C. Hawkins. 12 min., 1950. Available through Education Film Sales Dept., University Extension, University of California, Los Angeles 24, Calif. \$45.00; rental \$2.00.

Without dialogue or commentary two boys, ages 6 and 11, are shown in their wandering through the woods as they go bird-hunting with a BB gun, and finally as they kill a bird. Their first encounter with inflicted death is expressed exclusively through posture, mimicry, and gestures.

This film, having no commentary, represents an attempt at communication by empathy. It could be analyzed at three levels: (1) in itself as to the accuracy of presentation of characteristic behavior patterns in children, (2) in its differential effect on the audience if adult or child reactions are considered separately, and (3) for its educational value. According to some research done on this film (May V. Seagoe, University of California), children achieve better identification than adults with the characters portrayed, and experience more readily the negative value of killing a bird. The adults, on the other hand, hesitate to show the film to children since their interpretation is colored by adult values. The film could be used in classes in general psychology, or as a research tool with adult audiences.

Projection Room

30 min., 1951.

Available through Education Film Sales Dept., University Extension, University of California. Not for sale; may be rented at \$5.00.

This is an experimental pilot film intended for television. It represents a panel composed of three experts, a child, and his mother, as they discuss various aspects of the film *Bird Hunt* shown at the beginning of the session. The discussion indicates different reactions to the behavior of the two children in the film, especially as to the interpretation given to their reactions to inflicted death.

Here we have an example of a discussion film in which the audience is invited to continue the discussion.

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Emotional Behavior

THE PROBLEM of identifying emotion from behavioral clues, especially facial expression, has been a subject for investigation by psychologists for a long time (2, 4, 5). With few exceptions (1, 3) most of the work in this area was based on drawings or posed photographs. These techniques assumed that definite emotional expressions are univocally designated by conventional names. The identification of specific emotions from facial expressions alone is seldom successful; few emotions can be properly identified when separated from total behavior and the social or environmental context. Drawings and still pictures, moreover, lack the richness of actual emotional patterns, whereas motion pictures can reproduce actual emotional behavior, with or without its context, and thus facilitate a better study of the problem of identification of emotion from behavior clues. This is the basic assumption of this film.

Judging Emotional Behavior

Lester F. Beck.

16-mm., black and white, sound, 25 min., 1953.

Available through Churchill-Wexler Film Productions, 801 N. Seward St., Los Angeles, Calif. \$100.00.

The movie is divided into two parts: (a) the presentation of two subjects (Fay and Jim) as they react to different stories told them by the narrator, but not heard by the audience; (b) then the same film sequences, with stories heard by the audience. During the first part the emotional responses are to be identified only from behavioral clues; in the second part these identifications are checked against the stories as told to the subjects by the narrator. The film can be used either as experimental demonstration or for research.

The movie is supplemented with a guide, a suggested test form, a list of names for emotions, and a key to 'correct' answers. For research purpose, film strips and a supplementary film (25 min.) similar to the first, but with stories changed are also available. *Judging Emotional Behavior* is a good film for classes in psychology studying emotion or emotional behavior. It can also be

used for research since it provides the possibility of using still pictures, corresponding to chosen moments of the corresponding film pictures, pictures alone or with accompanying stories. The guide to the film suggests also that the film can be used as a psychotherapeutic aid in cases of emotional maladjustment.

Concerning the film as a research device three points should be observed. (1) While looking at the film without sound track, we see the subject during and after the story was told. This arrangement makes for difficult judgment since the dynamics of behavior vary with parts of the story; it also introduces an element of expectation. (2) The stories themselves represent a social context and as such are possible of different interpretations depending on personal experiences and cultural background of the audience. (3) The fact that some stories require a mental re-enacting of a past experience (in the case of the subjects in the film) or the imaginary recreation of a situation by the viewer, the nature of the experienced emotion would depend either on affective memory or on the capacity of the subject to create such emotional states in imagination and live in them. Thus, if the stories are taken as stimulus situations, their emotional value is unequal for different subjects.

Validation of the film is still necessary as to its value as a psychotherapeutic aid.

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Group Living

ADJUSTMENT problems as experienced by teen-agers especially within the high school 'sub-culture' in terms of groups, group pressures, in-group values, and the resulting behavioral patterns are demonstrated and presented for discussion in a series of films produced by Young America Films, Inc. The purpose of the series is not to present a clinical approach or possible clear-cut solutions, but rather to raise problems, to present them in teen-ager's terms, and to promote free discussion. The films are to be viewed as stimulation for discussion either by empathy with the main character or by the challenge presented by easily recognizable adolescence social and personal problems. The films should appeal to teen-ager audiences and through discussion should clarify basic psychological principles as explanatory concepts. Each film is provided with a teacher's guide giving the purpose, the intended audience, the content of the film, and the suggestions for use. Each guide gives also a few relevant reading references which could be used as supplementary materials. All the films are 16-mm., sound, black and white, and available through Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York 17, N. Y., and other distributors.



Judging Emotions: Despair?

Judging Emotions: Amusement?

(From the film *Judging Emotional Behavior*. Churchill-Wexler Film Productions.)

Cheating

10 min., 1952. \$50.00.

The problem of cheating as experienced by a boy and girl in relation to their school work, as well as the resulting social consequences are demonstrated. The film illustrates the insidious nature of successive experiences with cheating, the unwilling cooperation of a classmate, the teacher's reaction, and the group's disapproval of cheating by the exclusion of the culprit from membership in the student council.

Responsibility

15 min., 1953. \$62.50.

The concept of responsibility in school work with implications as to how to study and the importance of acquiring proper work habits are illustrated. The film raises the problem of status in the judgment of the peer group as directly related to general responsibility and its social value.

Other People's Property

10 min., 1951. \$50.00.

The lack of insight into possible consequences of pranks with emphasis on the formation of delinquent groups through pressure, lack of personal responsibility, and sheer lack of understanding of social responsibility, are clearly demonstrated in the cases of three young boys.

The Bully

10 min., 1952. \$50.00.

Group and individual reactions in relation to the activities of a 'bully' and his gang, as manifested at the junior high school level are illustrated. Various film sequences show the dominance of the 'bully,' the hesitancy of some of his little gang members, the conflict between home reference group and allegiance to the gang, and finally the reaction of the school class as a group.

The Good Loser

15 min., 1953. \$62.50.

The value of being a good loser is demonstrated through the presentation of various school situations in which comparative behavioral patterns are illus-



Cheating Concerns More than the Cheater.
(From the film *Cheating*. Young America
Films, Inc.)

trated as experienced by adolescents faced with the results of competitive activities. The film shows the effect of the situation on the loser, and the reaction of the school group and of the home. Various problems as to habit of success, status, individual relationships with the group, and the implications of team work, are formulated.

The Griper

10 min., 1953. \$50.00.

The griper as a product of his home environment and personal problems as manifested in an adolescent is portrayed. Various film sequences show the griper's behavior in different school situations and the effect on the group. Through the use of a duplicate image of the griper's 'conscience' his inner conflict is well demonstrated. The effect of his behavior on the group and the reaction of the group are also illustrated.

The Other Fellow's Feelings

8 min., 1951. \$50.00.

Teasing as a behavioral pattern at the pre-adolescent level and its consequences in terms of emotional responses are demonstrated. The film shows the effect of teasing on a girl who becomes inefficient in her school work as a consequence of being emotionally upset. The problem of teasing, its implications as to the personality of the teaser, and the effects on others are clearly formulated.



The Outsider

10 min., 1951. \$50.00.

The emotional problem of the adolescent who experiences feelings of inadequacy and lack of acceptance in the group is demonstrated. The film shows an adolescent girl who feels that she is not a member of the group and is withdrawn, and it explains her lack of belongingness through imaginary suspicions. Her behavior reinforces the attitude of the others toward her as she entrenches herself in her false beliefs. So she becomes an outsider. The film raises a series of adjustment problems by empathy and by specific questions put to the audience.

The Procrastinator

10 min., 1953. \$50.00.

This film presents the problem of the procrastinator in terms of teen-agers' values as experienced at the high school level. Various film sequences show a girl, who by continuous postponing of her school work or failing to do in time her obligations as the leader of her class, creates a series of situations that interfere with class activities and also results in social embarrassment at home. The film raises the problem of responsibility toward the group and suggests personal adjustment problems.

The Show-Off

10 min., 1954. \$50.00.

The show-off as a personal and social problem at the level of the adolescent is demonstrated through the presentation of a boy who creates a series of disturbances at school and in a social setting. The film illustrates show-off behavior as a result of the need for attention and as a disrupting factor in various school situations. The effect on group morale and group status, as well as the reaction of the group in terms of their values, are also demonstrated.

What About Drinking?

Raymond G. McCarthy and Luther E. Woodward.

10 min., 1954. \$50.00.

The drinking problem as faced by teen-agers is analyzed in terms of social values prevailing in our society. The film pre-

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- AN EXPERIMENT IN BRIEF PSYCHOTHERAPY. Robert B. Morton. #386. \$1.00.
AGE AND SEX DIFFERENCES IN DEGREE OF CONFLICT WITHIN CERTAIN AREAS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT. Marvin Powell. #387. \$1.00.
STUDIES OF SCALE AND AMBIGUITY VALUES OBTAINED BY THE METHOD OF EQUAL-APPEARING INTERVALS. Sam C. Webb. #388. \$1.00.
INTERPERSONAL ATTITUDES OF FORMER SOVIET CITIZENS, AS STUDIED BY A SEMI-PROJECTIVE METHOD. Eugenia Hanfmann and Jacob W. Getzels. #389. \$1.50.
A TECHNIQUE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MULTIPLE ABSOLUTE PREDICTION BATTERY. Paul Horst. #390. \$1.00.
INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AND THEORY IN A MOTOR LEARNING TASK. David Zeaman and Herbert Kaufman. #391. \$1.00.
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THE GROUP-ADMINISTERED RORSCHACH AS A RESEARCH INSTRUMENT: RELIABILITY AND NORMS. J. H. Rohrer, E. L. Hoffman, J. W. Bagby, Jr., Robert S. Herrmann, and W. L. Wilkins. #393. \$1.00.
A STUDY OF INDUSTRIAL INSPECTION BY THE METHOD OF PAIRED COMPARISONS. Martha Littleton Kelly. #394. \$1.00.
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THE RELATION OF DANCING EXPERIENCE AND PERSONALITY TO PERCEPTION. Arno Gruen. #399. \$1.00.
A FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ANGER RATINGS ASSIGNED TO FIVE CLASSES OF MOTIVATIONAL SITUATIONS. Marvin A. Iverson. #400. \$1.00.
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AUTONOMIC AND MUSCULAR RESPONSES, AND THEIR RELATION TO SIMPLE STIMULI. R. C. Davis, Alexander M. Buchwald, and R. W. Frankmann. #405. \$2.00.
TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDING OF THEIR PUPILS AND PUPILS' RATINGS OF THEIR TEACHERS. N. L. Gage, George S. Leavitt, and George C. Stone. #406. \$1.50.
A FACTORIAL STUDY OF EMOTIONALITY IN THE DOG. Joseph R. Royce. #407. \$1.00.

Orders for any of these Monographs can be placed separately at the prices listed above, or the entire volume can be ordered for \$8.00.

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sents a discussion among teen-agers of various points of view concerning the use of alcohol. The discussion considers different opinions as expressed by parents, ministers, or medical doctors, as well as by the teen-agers themselves. Critical thinking, objective attitudes, and reliable information are stressed.

What About Juvenile Delinquency

Philip B. Gilliam.

10 min., 1955. \$50.00.

Juvenile delinquency in terms of teen-agers' gangs and their social behavior is presented. Various film sequences show the cohesiveness of the gang, their delinquent behavior, their activity as a pressure group, the use of symbols for identification, and the nature of group loyalty. Through the defection of one member of the gang as a result of his father's being attacked by the rest of the gang, the whole problem of juvenile delinquency is opened for discussion. The reaction of the school and city authorities are also shown.



The YAF (Young America Films) series on group living represents an attempt at characterological study at the level of pre-adolescence and adolescence as experienced by junior high school students. The emphasis is on group values as a guide for character development.

The communication function of these films is achieved through empathy with various characters presented and by narration. The characters are so chosen that vicarious experiences are facilitated, provided one may assume an almost uniform cultural level. Since the films are of a discussional type, their educational effectiveness depends on the discussion leader and the preparation of the audience. The reading references, given with each guide, if properly used, would increase their value and would make them effective for the demonstration of principles of counseling, social behavior, and personality development at higher levels than junior high.

Psychology for Living

MANY of the psychological films available on the market today have as their main purpose the giving of information on life problems as clarified by scientific research. The fact that the films as such do not always provide complete information on the subject treated has resulted in a variety of supplementary materials which are used in conjunction with the films. Among these materials there are teacher guides, film strips, sound film strips, and books. Many films are directly correlated with a particular book and are intended to serve as pictorial material for it. McGraw-Hill Book Company has produced or distributed a series of such films which are to be used for maximum efficiency as a teaching device in direct relation with a text. One such series, released in 1954 and the beginning of 1955, is *Psychology for Living*. It is meant to be used with H. Sorenson and M. Malm's *Psychology for Living* (McGraw-Hill, 1948). There are six, 16-mm., sound, black-and-white films in this series. All of them are available through McGraw-Hill, Text-Film Department, 330 W. 42nd St., New York 26, New York. Three of these books and sixteen of the supporting films are listed at the end of this section.

Facing Reality

12 min., 1954. \$70.00.

Various defense mechanisms are demonstrated through the use of a shadow screen which helps the presentation of characteristic behavior patterns. The film illustrates daydreaming, identification, repression, malingering, and other defense and escape mechanisms. The case of Mike Squires is presented in detail as to his negativistic attitude in different school situations. The discrepancy between his behavior and his need for affection and belongingness, his fear of failure and his negative overcompensation are demonstrated. The film emphasizes the need for overcoming personal problems through the understanding of their nature and sympathetic communications with an advisor or friend.

Habit Patterns

15 min., 1954. \$85.00.

The social and personal value of good habits as to dress, tidiness, punctuality, politeness, and respect for others are demonstrated. Various film sequences show a girl who, due to her poor personal and social habits, creates for herself and others a series of unpleasant experiences. Her habits are contrasted with those of another girl who knows the importance of good habits and practices them. The film stresses the individual and social importance of good habits and shows how serious application and awareness of results can be used for acquiring acceptable habit patterns.

Heredity and Family Environment

9 min., 1955. \$55.00.

The contributions of heredity and environment to the development of the individual are demonstrated through various film sequences which depict scenes illustrating statements made by the narrator. The film emphasizes the fact that physical characteristics and individual differences at this level are predominantly due to hereditary factors, while athletic skills, cultural values, and social manifestations are predominantly a result of learning and consequently related to environmental factors. Individual contribution to growth and development is indicated as being achieved within the limits set by hereditary factors.



Escape from Reality: Day-Dreaming.
(From the film *Facing Reality*. McGraw-Hill Text Films.)

Successful Scholarship

11 min., 1954. \$80.00.

The problem of how to study as applicable to an average student is presented. The film emphasizes the importance of a definite goal, a plan for study, a place, and a method. These conditions conducive to good study are demonstrated through the presentation of an average girl who wants to become a nurse and is able to organize her school work by following certain routines comparable to those prevailing in a hospital. The goal, the plan, especially in terms of scheduling, the place, and the method, including how to read and to test oneself, are necessary and also sufficient for scholarship success if followed systematically.

Toward Emotional Maturity

11 min., 1955. \$80.00.

Emotion as a disorganized response to situations involving real or imaginary dangers affect unfavorably individual behavior. A simple experiment of presenting two boxes, one with a toy serpent in it and the other with two pups, demonstrates irrational responses in terms of background experiences and immediate association. The problem of emotional responses in respect of jealousy, feelings of insecurity, or inappropriate social behavior is demonstrated for a teen-age girl in various life situations. The film emphasizes the importance of understanding the nature of emotional responses and the possibility of exercising some control over such manifestations. Emotional maturity is to be understood as the ability for self-control which results from thinking and learning.

The purpose of this series is to present the problem of various life situations in the light of basic psychological principles. The assumption of the whole series is that individual behavior is explicable in terms of background conditions plus personal effort. Great emphasis is placed on the value of psychological adjustment and the most appropriate means for achieving it. The need for the awareness of various mental mechanisms as explanatory concepts for different behavioral patterns is emphasized, as well as different educational techniques. The intended audience is the students of

junior and senior high school. At this level it is assumed that the effectiveness of the films would be achieved exclusively through empathy and vicarious experience. With the use of the text, *Psychology for Living*, and a discussion leader, the films can also be used for the demonstration of psychological principles or theories with beginning classes in general psychology or in the psychology of adolescence.

Here CP lists by title sixteen items in the McGraw-Hill film series.

Child Development. Text: E. B. Hurlock, *Child Development*, 2nd ed., 1950.

Principles of development. 17 min.

Child care and development. 17 min.

Heredity and prenatal development. 21 min.

Children's emotions. 22 min.

Social development. 16 min.

Adolescent Development. Text: E. B. Hurlock, *Adolescent Development*, 2nd ed., 1955.

Meaning of adolescence. 16 min.

Physical aspects of puberty. 19 min.

Age of turmoil. 20 min.

Social-sex attitudes in adolescence. 22 min.

Meeting the needs of adolescents. 19 min.

Educational Psychology. Text: H. Sorenson, *Psychology in Education*, 3rd ed., 1954.

Motivating the class. 19 min.

Importance of goals. 19 min.

Individual differences. 23 min.

Problem of pupil adjustment—the drop-out. 20 min.

Problem of pupil adjustment—the stay-in. 19 min.



Editors might be better than pigeons as experimental subjects, for it takes such a small number of positive reinforcements to keep them working happily at their pleasant addiction.

—DAEL WOLFLE



ON PROBLEM SOLVING

by

KARL DUNCKER

In the monograph *On Problem Solving* an investigation of the practical and mathematical problems in thinking is made. In its 112 pages are included the broad discussion areas of "The Structure and Dynamics of Problem-Solving Processes," "Insight, Learning and Simple Finding," and "Fixedness of Thought-Material."

This popular monograph, now in its third printing, is again available to psychologists who may not have had an opportunity to purchase copies previously. Copies, at \$2.50 each, may be ordered from:

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Shop Safety

PREVENTION of accidents constitutes a major problem in an industrial society. One means of education for accident prevention is the film. These films present immediate practical situations, within a familiar shop or working place, and at the level of the worker. The emphasis is more on understanding through empathy than on exclusively verbal communication. One such film is:

It Didn't Have to Happen

Industrial Accident Prevention Assoc. of Ontario, Canada.

16-mm., black and white, sound, 13 min., 1954.

Available through International Film Bureau, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois. \$75.00, rental \$4.50.

Various work accidents are dramatically presented as resulting from carelessness, lack of orderliness, and disobedience of safety rules, especially as to the disuse of safety guards. The film demonstrates realistically a few accidents which occur as a direct result of disregard of safety rules. The need for safety devices and their proper employment is forcefully brought home by scenes showing the death of a worker

and other personal injuries.

The film is impressive by its realistic presentation of accidents. The situations presented have a definite emotional impact on the audience. This fact, however, raises the problem of suggestibility and of the memory value of unpleasant situations.

The film, besides its usefulness in industry, can profitably be used in classes in industrial or applied psychology as an example of techniques in accident prevention work.

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Projective Techniques

Finger Painting as a Projective Technique

P. J. Napoli.

16-mm., color, sound, 21 min., 1954.

\$170.00, rental \$6.50.

Available through Psychological Cinema Register, Audio-Visual Aids Library, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Penna.

The technique of finger painting is clearly demonstrated as to the table of supplies, choice of color, spreading of color, the arrangement of the room, and the proper administration of the test. Actual finger painting is shown through three consecutive demonstrations, sup-

plemented with remarks as to the facility of the work, and the nature of the end product. The theory of finger painting as a projective technique in terms of rapport, verbalization, and style is also given. A series of productions of patients, psychiatrically diagnosed, is rapidly presented but with no attempt at interpretation. The film is limited mainly to the presentation of the technique of finger painting.

The film presents accurately and in great detail the procedures for finger painting. It is, however, only an introductory lesson to finger painting as a projective test. The last part showing paintings made by different patients does not add to its value, for these paintings are shown too rapidly and with only cursory interpretation. According to the producer's statement, other films in this area are contemplated. The film would gain as a teaching tool if it were supplemented with a guide. Its effectiveness in classes in psychology, or in training for finger painting as a projective test would be increased by the use of such reference materials as P. J. Napoli, *Finger-Painting and Personality Diagnosis* (Genet. Psychol. Monogr., 1946, 34, 129-230) and others.

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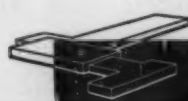
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